

British And German East
Africa:
Their Economic And
Commercial Relations
(1911)



Heinrich Brode

BRITISH AND GERMAN EAST AFRICA

THEIR ECONOMIC & COMMERCIAL
RELATIONS

BY

DR. H. BRODE

AUTHOR OF "TIFFOO TIB"

WITH ILLUSTRATIONS AND MAP

NEW YORK
LONGMANS, GREEN & CO.
LONDON: EDWARD ARNOLD

1911

All rights reserved

In the interest of creating a more extensive selection of rare historical book reprints, we have chosen to reproduce this title even though it may possibly have occasional imperfections such as missing and blurred pages, missing text, poor pictures, markings, dark backgrounds and other reproduction issues beyond our control. Because this work is culturally important, we have made it available as a part of our commitment to protecting, preserving and promoting the world's literature. Thank you for your understanding.



OLD FRUIT MARKET, ZANZIBAR.

NOTE

THE author was for many years in charge of the German Consulates at Zanzibar and Mombasa. This volume was written in September, 1910, but the statistics have been brought up to date as far as possible.

September, 1911.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

	PAGE
Zanzibar as centre of trade in the old times - - -	1
German and British conquests in East Africa - - -	4
The London Agreement of 1890 - - -	5
German East Africa's gradual severance from Zanzibar's commercial influence - - -	8
Corresponding development in British East Africa - -	15
General points of view regarding the development of German East Africa and the two British Protectorates - -	24

CHAPTER II

COMMERCIAL RELATIONS

Shipping communications, postal and telegraph service -	27
Direct trade between German East Africa and British East Africa - - -	31
German transit trade through British East Africa - -	34
Transit regulations - - -	35
The Kilima Njaro district - - -	37
The German Lake ports - - -	45
Direct trade between Uganda and German East Africa -	61
Earnings of the Uganda Railway out of German traffic -	65
The Uganda Railway as a stimulus for German colonial enterprise - - -	66
German postal service in transit through British East Africa	67

CHAPTER III

ECONOMIC RELATIONS

	PAGE
The Congo Act - - - - -	68
The Act of Brussels - - - - -	69
Education of natives - - - - -	74
Sanitary - - - - -	78
Political control of natives - - - - -	82
Taxation - - - - -	85
The labour question - - - - -	87
Savings Banks, Currency - - - - -	95

CHAPTER IV

CULTIVATION IN THE TROPICAL BELT

Coffee - - - - -	97
Rubber - - - - -	100
Sisal - - - - -	103
Cotton - - - - -	107
Copra - - - - -	116

CHAPTER V

FARMING IN THE HIGHLANDS

Land settlement - - - - -	119
Sheep-farming - - - - -	125
Cattle-ranching - - - - -	132
Other live stock - - - - -	135
Ostrich-farming and rearing of silkworms - - - - -	136
Domestication of wild animals - - - - -	137

CHAPTER VI

NATURAL PRODUCTS

Native production - - - - -	140
Game - - - - -	143
Minerals - - - - -	146
Forests - - - - -	149
Fisheries - - - - -	151

CONTENTS

ix

CHAPTER VII

MUTUAL EXCHANGE OF EXPERIENCE

	PAGE
Exhibitions -	152
Mutual visits -	156

CHAPTER VIII

FUTURE PROSPECTS -	159
APPENDICES A—F (CONTAINING STATISTICS) -	168

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

	TO PAGE PAGE
OLD FRUIT MARKET, ZANZIBAR - - -	<i>frontispiece</i>
DARESSALAM - - - - -	10
MOMBASA: THE OLD HARBOUR - - - - -	30
OVER THE MAU ESCARPMENT, UGANDA RAILWAY - - -	42
APPROACH TO PORT TERNAN - - - - -	54
SLAVE CARAVAN - - - - -	70
ENTERBE - - - - -	110
NATIONAL BANK AT MOMBASA - - - - -	156
ONE OF THE GOVERNMENT HOUSES AT DARESSALAM - -	156
MAP - - - - -	<i>at end</i>

LIST OF AUTHORITIES

- ANDERSON, A. G.: Our Newest Colony. Nairobi, 1910.
ANDERSON, C. A.: Native Labour in British East Africa.
Mombasa, 1909.
ELIOT: The East Africa Protectorate. London, 1905.
GREGORY: The Foundation of British East Africa. London, 1905.
JOHNSTON: A History of the Colonization of Africa. Cambridge, 1899.
KELTIE: The Partition of Africa. 2nd edition. London, 1895.
PLAYNE: East Africa. Woking (Surrey) and London, 1908-9.
-

The following official publications, periodicals, handbooks, and newspapers have been consulted:

- The English Colonial Reports and Blue Books referring to British East Africa and Uganda.
The Administration Reports of the Uganda Railway.
The Annual Reports of the Department of Agriculture, British East Africa.
Quarterly Report of the Progress of Segregation Camps and Medical Treatment of Sleeping Sickness in Uganda (for the Quarter December 1 to February 29, 1908).
The Agricultural Journal of British East Africa.
Ordinances and Regulations of the East Africa Protectorate.
The Official Gazettes for East Africa and Uganda.
The Zanzibar Gazette.
The Red Book, 1909: A Directory of East Africa, Uganda, and Zanzibar. Mombasa, 1909.
The East African Standard.
The German White Books referring to German East Africa.

Berichte über Handel und Industrie—Zusammengestellt im Reichsamt des Innern—as far as they concern German East Africa, British East Africa, and Uganda.

Deutsches Kolonialblatt.

Die Landesgesetzgebung des deutschostafrikanischen Schutzgebietes.

Der Amtliche Anzeiger für Deutschostafrika.

Der Pflanzer.

Deutschostafrikanische Rundschau.

Deutschostafrikanische Zeitung.

Deutschkoloniale Baumwollunternehmungen. Bericht II. des Kolonialwirtschaftlichen Komitees.

ABBREVIATIONS.

B.E.A. British East Africa.

B.E.A.C. British East Africa Company.

B.I. British India Steam Navigation Company.

C.G.A. Cotton Growing Association.

D.O.A.L. Deutsche Ostafrika Linie.

D.O.A.G. Deutschostafrikanische Gesellschaft.

D.O.A.R. Deutschostafrikanische Rundschau.

D.O.A.Z. Deutschostafrikanische Zeitung.

G.E.A. German East Africa.

K.B. Deutsches Kolonialblatt.

K.W.K. Kolonialwirtschaftlichen Komitee.

**BRITISH AND GERMAN
EAST AFRICA**

BRITISH AND GERMAN EAST AFRICA

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

ABOUT twenty-five years ago, when Germany and Great Britain divided East Africa, Zanzibar was the centre of the trade there, as it had been when the first merchants of the West arrived there. At the commencement of 1800 American whalers first called at the island. In 1830 the American firm John Bertram settled in Zanzibar, and found there a large market for their cotton goods and hardware, in exchange for which they exported ivory and rubber. A new impetus was given to the trade of the island in 1832 when Seyid Said, the ingenious ruler of Muskat, after having subdued his adversaries on the mainland, made Zanzibar his permanent residence. To him, East Africa owed its wealth to the number of people who passed through the Zanzibar headquarters on their way to the slave

2 BRITISH AND GERMAN EAST AFRICA

markets of Arabia and the countries of the Persian Gulf. As an important product for the Occidental market, he encouraged the cultivation of cloves, which, first met with by the Arabs at Mauritius, surpassed in a very short time all other crops on the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, and still form the principal item in their export statistics. As early as 1833 the United States made a commercial treaty with the Sultan, and three years later they established a trading consulate at Zanzibar. Great Britain had close commercial relations with East Africa, on account of its proximity to India, and during a few months in 1824 had exercised a Protectorate over Mombasa, and established a Consulate. In 1844 the French followed, and were in great favour—especially under Sultan Said. In the years 1847-1849, under Captain Guillain, they took a great part in the exploration of East Africa.

Shortly afterwards the Hamburg firm of O'Swald and Co. established themselves in Zanzibar. From the west coast, where they had been trading, they sent, in 1846, a sailing-ship to East Africa to get cowrie-shells, which were used as coinage on the west coast. The favourable commercial conditions they found at Zanzibar encouraged the firm to stay there, and they acquired a site near the Customs House, which is one of the best in the whole town.

In 1859 the Hanseatic States made a treaty with the Sultan, and established a Consulate under the management of O'Swald's representative. Some years later the Hamburg firm, Hansing and Co. opened a branch at Zanzibar.

The opening of the Suez Canal, in 1869, created new connections between East Africa and the Occident. The glorious explorations of the missionaries Livingstone, Krapf, and Rebmann, had awakened an interest in the Dark Continent, and opened a new field for evangelization. Lay explorers like Speke and Grant made further discoveries, and whetted the appetite for colonial acquisition.

The English interest in East Africa grew when, after Seyid Said's death, in 1861, Great Britain was called upon to act as umpire between his two sons, Thueni and Majid, who divided the Sultanate between themselves, the elder getting the Arabian, the younger the African possessions. In 1872 the British India Steam Navigation Company started a regular service between Aden and Zanzibar. In 1873 Great Britain caused Seyid Barghash to sign a treaty for the abolition of slavery, and English influence grew so rapidly that the same Sultan offered to the Chairman of the British Shipping Company a lease of all his Custom duties and other royalties. Still, Great Britain, involved in more

urgent affairs, allowed the right moment to pass, and left the field open to German conquests.

The famous voyage of Dr. Peters to East Africa, in 1884, is well known. He acquired for the Gesellschaft für deutsche Kolonisation some treaty rights with native chiefs, for which, on February 27, 1885, an Imperial Charter of Protection (Schutzbrief) was granted. In the same year a German Protectorate over the independent State of Witu was declared.

In 1886 Germany and Great Britain came to an understanding as to the extension of the Sultan of Zanzibar's possessions. It was agreed that they included the islands of Zanzibar, Pemba, and the Lamu Archipelago, in addition to a ten-mile belt along the coast from Tunghi Bay to Kipini, and some northern towns. The territory behind the Sultan's ten-mile strip was divided into two parts, the northern half being assigned to Great Britain, the southern to Germany.¹

In 1887 the Sultan granted a lease of his mainland possessions lying between the Umba River and Kipini to the British East Africa Association; in 1888 a similar concession of his territories south of the Umba was given to the German East African Company. On July 1, 1890, a treaty was signed

¹ "The Red Book," 1909, p. 28.

in London between Great Britain and Germany which may be regarded as the political foundation-stone of their respective Protectorates in East Africa. The result of this agreement was that Germany withdrew her Protectorate over Witu, and resigned her claims to other territories north of what is now German East Africa, receiving in exchange the definite cession of the country which the German Company had held so far in lease from the Sultan, and the island of Heligoland. Great Britain established a Protectorate over the remainder of the Sultan's possessions, which was recognized by Germany.

The London agreement of July 1, 1890, was a great disappointment to all those who had an interest in German colonization. Enthusiasts dreamt already of a huge German colonial empire, and Dr. Peters and his friends especially found their hopes sadly chilled when they learnt that the treaties he had made during his famous Emin Pasha Expedition were annulled by the fact that the country over which he had acquired a possible Protectorate fell under the English sphere of influence. The Sultanate of Witu was overvalued in its importance, as was the influence which Germany had secured for some time in Zanzibar. Having lived for many years in this place, I heard often enough well-

educated visitors express their regret that we had given up our Protectorate over Zanzibar to acquire the tiny island of Heligoland, and it always took a good deal of eloquence to persuade those sceptics that we never had enjoyed such a Protectorate.

The German Government published a detailed memorandum on the subject of the Anglo-German agreement. It was admitted that Zanzibar so far had been the centre of the East African trade, but they pointed out that this development was based on circumstances more accidental than necessary. In the troublesome slave-raiding times Zanzibar, from its insular position, was a safer place than any port on the mainland, and this was the chief argument in favour of Seyid Said making it his residence. For the same reason the European firms settled there. Indian traders kept shops at several places on the mainland, but their headquarters were in Zanzibar. From there they got the imported goods for the use of the natives ; thither they sent the produce of the interior. The traffic was done by dhows, which were able to anchor in the shallowest water. The increasing importance of Zanzibar led to the creation of steamship communication with India and Europe. The opening of a cable line in 1879 enabled the European merchants there to get regular information about the fluctuations of the European markets,

especially in regard to the important London ivory market.

Still, it was unnatural, and doubled the cost, to ship the exported articles first on the coast and then reload them again in Zanzibar, or *vice versa* in the case of imported goods. General experience teaches that trade always extends from the islands to the mainland, not the reverse. Besides, the Zanzibar roadstead does not offer nearly such a good anchorage as many ports on the coast. After all, as the memorandum points out, it was not Zanzibar that ruled the mainland, but the mainland that ruled Zanzibar. History has proved since that those arguments were true, but it needed many years of hard and often disappointing work to bring about the economic independence of German East Africa. And it was, anyhow, a fact that at the time of the London agreement the German colony, as well as the English sphere of influence, was absolutely controlled by the Zanzibar market.

According to a report of the British Consul-General in Zanzibar, the exports of this island to Mombasa—for the northern ports no statistics were given—amounted during the period from September 1, 1891, to August 31, 1892, to \$205,830, or about £32,000; whilst the exports from Zanzibar to the German ports represented in the same time a

value of about £450,000.¹ More reliable statistics are obtainable since February 1, 1892, and the figures show that from this date to the end of 1892 the net imports of Zanzibar represented a value of Rs. 10,823,082, the net exports of Rs. 6,705,040. More than 48 per cent. of the imports in African articles came from German East Africa, 8 per cent. from the country under the control of the Imperial British East African Company, 38 per cent. from the Sultanate itself, and 6 per cent. from the southern ports of East Africa. Of all imported articles the island itself consumed only 43 per cent. ; the rest was re-exported, and 56 per cent. of this was taken by German East Africa, 12 per cent. by the British territory, whilst 17 per cent. went to other places of the Sultanate, and 15 per cent. to the south.²

The first steps which Germany took to make her territory independent of the Zanzibar influence was the establishment of a direct shipping line between Hamburg and the two principal ports, Tanga and Daressalam. The first boat of the Deutsche Ostafrika Linie reached Daressalam on September 1, 1890, the boats at first running every eight weeks ; but in 1891 the service was altered to a

¹ *K.B.*, 1892, p. 286 ; and 1893, p. 42.

² *Ibid.*, 1894, p. 326.

monthly one.¹ In 1898 an intermediate line was started, so that a fortnightly service was guaranteed, and, with some slight moderations, has been kept on till the present. The line also established, in the beginning of 1892, direct shipping communications with India, which had hitherto made Zanzibar the centre for African trade.

On September 18, 1890, a cable service was opened in German East Africa which connected Bagamojo with Zanzibar. Imperial post offices were established at Daressalam and Bagamojo on October 4, 1890, whilst the German office at Zanzibar, which had been established there on August 27 of that year, was abolished in 1891.²

On November 22, 1891, a German company obtained the concession to build a railway from Tanga to Usambara,³ which, though the work went on pretty slowly, contributed to the development of the northern part of the German colony, where already, in the previous year, the Deutschostafrikanische Seehandlung had started business.⁴ Experiments were made with cotton, ginger, and copra, and, with the progress of the railway, numerous plantations arose in the hinterland, their chief produce in the first years being coffee. Near Pangani the Deutschost-

¹ *K.B.*, 1892, p. 22. ² *Ibid.*, 1890, p. 133.

³ *Ibid.*, 1891, p. 531.

⁴ *Ibid.*, 1890, p. 201, and 1891, p. 395.

afrikanische Gesellschaft had started, before the Arab rebellion, a plantation at Lewa, where nearly every possible tropical produce had been experimented with. Other plantations grew up near Bagamojo, Darassalam, and the southern coast places.

It must be admitted that the first results in most places were not very encouraging ; the general lack of interest at home in colonial questions handicapped the development of the young colony, and the principal drawback from which the country had to suffer was the unwillingness of the Reichstag to grant any public money for building railways. So it was not until the beginning of this century that a real economic separation of German East Africa from Zanzibar was noticeable. The great political events which then took place—the European crusade against China in 1899 and the rebellion in German South-West Africa in 1904—enlarged the ideas of the home people, awakened interest in matters abroad, and taught them the great importance of railways in the colonies. So in 1904 the long-desired central railway from Darassalam to the interior was inaugurated by a legal Act of July 1, under which the Imperial Government granted to the Ostafrikanische Eisenbahngesellschaft a concession, and guaranteed an interest on the building capital. On February 9, 1909,



DAKESALAM.

TO VIKI
ALBONIA

H.R.H. Prince Adalbert of Prussia turned the first sod at Darassalam.

In the meantime the Usambara Railway was also extended, an additional section from Korogwe to Mombo being opened on February 19, 1905, thus bringing the total distance from the coast up to 129 kilometres.

An important step in the economic separation of German East Africa from Zanzibar was the severance of their monetary unity, which, if not legal, had existed in fact until 1903. When the German company acquired their territories in East Africa the usual coinage there was the Indian rupee. The close connection between East Africa and India made it desirable to adopt a similar system, and so a German rupee was created which differed from the Indian coinage only in the inscription, and passed on the East African markets at the same value as the former. The heavy fluctuations to which a silver coinage was naturally exposed, and the continual decrease of the price of silver at the end of last century, caused the Indian Government to take legal measures, with the result that a standard value of their rupee was created, one sovereign being declared equal to Rs. 15. The German rupees benefited by this measure, though the only guarantee they gave was based on their actual silver value.

The Zanzibar Government was therefore fully justified in deciding, in the beginning of 1903, that in future no German rupees were to be accepted by their offices. Just about this time, on April 1, the privilege of coinage was, according to a new agreement, abandoned by the *Deutschostafrikanische Gesellschaft*, and the German Government, to avoid a depreciation of the German rupees, took immediate steps to redeem the company's coins with Indian rupees. In less than a month, at no small cost, about half a million of German rupees were withdrawn from Zanzibar to the coast—a token of the close commercial relations between these countries. On the other hand, it was estimated that nearly three-quarters of the rupees circulating in the German colony were of Indian coinage.

The German Government stuck to the rupee coinage, and followed the Indian example by an Act of February, 1904, which declared the German crowns (10 marks) and double crowns (20 marks) as official coinage, with a value of Rs. $7\frac{1}{2}$ and 15. Though after this measure the difference between German and Indian rupees was a very small one, based only on the difference of value between £1 and 20 marks, the former mutual interchange of German and Indian rupees, which had made the coast trade so easy, never revived;

and when in 1905 a bank with the privilege of issuing notes started business at Daressalam, the financial separation between the two countries was complete.

The circulation of the so-called Mombasa rupees—a coinage in use in the territory under administration of the British Company—had already been prohibited in German East Africa in 1893.¹

A more accidental factor in the slackening of the relations between Zanzibar and the German Colony was the outbreak of plague in Zanzibar in September, 1905. The German Government, which had to take strict measures against a spread of the disease to their territory, issued regulations which, in the beginning, stopped the dhow traffic between Zanzibar and the coast altogether; later on only a few ports were opened for communication, and among these Bagamojo, in former times the principal dhow port, was not included. When at last all restrictions were removed, the dhow traffic never assumed its former importance.

Between 1899 and 1904 over 2,000 German dhows called every year at the port of Zanzibar; this figure fell in 1905 to 1,455, and to 286 in 1906. In the following three years the figures were 772, 1,120, and 1,020.

¹ K.B., 1893, p. 486.

On July 1, 1897, the Deutsche Ostafrika Linie moved their headquarters from Zanzibar to Darassalam, a change which was demanded by the Imperial Government in consideration of the large subventions this shipping line received. In an agreement between the Government and the Deutsche Ostafrika Linie, dated August 7, 1890, it had already been pointed out that for shipments to and from German East Africa no higher rates could be charged than for shipments to and from Zanzibar.

In the course of time the other important trading firms also established branches on the different coast places, and in 1891 the general manager of the Deutschostafrikanische Gesellschaft transferred his residence to Darassalam.

The British Government watched with keen interest the development of the young German colony. Their Consul-General at Zanzibar received in August, 1891, the exequatur for German East Africa, and for some years a British Vice-Consul was even residing at Darassalam. From the very beginning the British authorities realized the danger which the building up of a German colony meant to the commercial position of Zanzibar. To keep its old importance as the centre of trade, it was therefore decided in 1891 to abolish all import

duties in Zanzibar, and on February 1, 1892, the latter was declared a free port.¹ At the same time a pier and warehouses were erected to facilitate the loading and shipping. Later on financial difficulties caused the Zanzibar Government to break with the free trade system, and in 1899 a general import duty of 5 per cent. *ad valorem* was established, which in January, 1908, was raised to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Though it was very doubtful whether this measure was in accordance with international conventions, the German Government did not protest, because this further rise of the Zanzibar duties could only be propitious for their own competing colony. In Appendix A a statistical list is given which shows the gradual decline of the commercial relations between Zanzibar and German East Africa.

It will be interesting to see that German East Africa, during the years from 1898 until 1902, received between 51 and 66 per cent. of its total imports from Zanzibar, and forwarded at the same time about 62 per cent. of its total exports to that island. Those figures have diminished in the last four years to less than 18 per cent. of both imports and exports.

The commercial relations between Zanzibar and what is now British East Africa were never

¹ K.B., 1892, p. 207.

of such great importance as those which had existed between the island and the German part of the mainland. This was natural enough on account of the geographical position. Bagamojo and Daressalam were much handier than any other ports for the Arabs who started their expeditions to the dark continent from Zanzibar, and so it was no wonder that those places became the starting-points of the long caravan roads which led to Tabora, and farther on past Lake Tanganyika to the riches of the future Congo Free State. Besides, the hinterland of Mombasa was by far less attractive; the route from there to the interior led first through the waterless Taru Desert, and further inland the hostile tribes of Masais and Nandis made the journey dangerous. So the wealth of the British sphere of influence lay, in the Arab time, more in its coast-belt where Malinda and Lamu had risen to the position of flourishing ports. Lying nearer to the north, they enjoyed a direct trade with Arabia and the Persian Gulf. Arabs report that in the Malindi district about 20,000 slaves cultivated shambas, and that on an average between three and four hundred big dhows a year left that port for the north, with about 15,000 tons of grain. Still, Zanzibar was the commercial centre for all the produce which was needed on the European markets,

and the supplier of most articles for the mainland trade.

Whilst in the German sphere of influence the Imperial Government started their administration immediately after the London agreement, in the British part the British East Africa Company tried for some time to administer the coast by themselves, and even began to extend their influence to Uganda, but they soon found the burden too heavy for their shoulders. On April 1, 1893, the Company handed over the administration of Uganda to the British Government. In the same year the Sultanate of Witu was abandoned, and on July 1, 1895, after the Mbaruk Rebellion, the rule of the Company came to an end altogether. The British Foreign Office established a direct control over the East Africa Protectorate, which was effected by the Consul-General at Zanzibar, who at the same time got the title of Her Majesty's Commissioner.

During the short time the Company governed the country they could not do much for its development. The limited means they had were a good deal wasted in ransoms which they had to pay to slave-owners for runaways, who found an asylum in Freretown, a settlement founded in 1874 near Mombasa for the reception of liberated slaves. Even when, in 1894, the British Government established

their Protectorate, the dependence of the country on Zanzibar remained the same, and all the more so as the ruler of the Protectorate and the Consul-General in Zanzibar were one and the same person. ✓ A new step in the development was only taken when the making of the Uganda Railway was started in 1895.

Interest in Uganda was first inspired by Stanley, who declared it a splendid field for mission-work.¹ The Church Missionary Society sent out a party of pioneers in 1877, who were followed by a Roman Catholic Mission. Soon a rivalry between the two sects arose, and formed a deplorable chapter in the history of evangelization. Serious troubles followed, and just at a time of utmost chaos the British East Africa Company proceeded, in accordance with the Anglo-German agreement, to occupy the country. The famous Captain Lugard restored order in an admirable way, but the Company found their means too small for governing such a far-away district. The general feeling in England, especially in missionary quarters, was against the abandonment of Uganda, and so, in 1893, the Government sent the Consul-General of Zanzibar, Sir Gerald Portal, on an expedition to Uganda, to report on the best means of dealing with the country, whether through

¹ Eliot, "The East Africa Protectorate," p. 28.

Zanzibar or otherwise. Portal advocated the establishment of an official administration and the construction of a railway. The idea of connecting the Indian Ocean with Lake Victoria by rail had already been considered for some years, and was an outcome of the responsibilities accepted by the British Government at the Brussels Conference of 1890. As one of the most effective means for counteracting the slave trade, the suppression of which was the object of the conference, the Signatory Powers had decided upon the construction of roads, and so philanthropic motives provided a good argument in addition to the strategic and commercial purposes for which the railway was to be built.

The Company¹ could not afford to make the railway themselves, because, running the first part of the way through a sterile country, and having few lateral feeders, it could not be expected to be remunerative for some time. Finally, in June, 1895, after Lord Salisbury's return to office as Premier, it was resolved that the line should be constructed by the Government itself. At the end of the year the first rails were laid, and the first train reached the lake in December, 1901.

All stores and materials were ordered in Europe

¹ Eastwood on The Uganda Railway, in Playne's "East Africa," pp. 195-228.

or in India. The total quantities of stores shipped from the west of Suez aggregated over 305,000 tons, at a cost of £2,306,300 ; and from India 41,000 tons of stores, of the value of about £150,000.

As labourers for the railway construction Indian coolies were imported, and in the busiest time about 20,000 men were at work. Their needs for food and clothing caused a heavy increase of imports, especially in the case of rice, which came direct from India. The figures were very high, and reached in 1898 and 1899 over £100,000.¹ Naturally the coolies also attracted a great number of traders. When the construction of the railway approached completion, and the coolies and their followers left the country, the imports declined ; but, on the other hand, the tendency of the railway to develop the country soon made itself felt.

Thus Mombasa soon began to be served by direct steamers from Europe. After 1899 the intermediate steamers of the Deutsche Ostafrika Linie touched at the port ; in July, 1900, the Austrian Lloyd from Trieste commenced running : first bi-monthly, later on every month. In July, 1901, chartered steamers of the British India Steam Navigation Company began calling each month, coming from Europe, and pro-

¹ "Handelsberichte des In. und Auslandes." Maiheft, 1904, Serie V., No. 11.

ceeding from Mombasa by Zanzibar and Delagoa Bay to India. In addition, the regular ships of this line used to call at Aden on their way to Bombay.¹

A slight interruption of the general development of the country was caused by an outbreak of plague at Nairobi, during March and April, 1902, which made quarantine restrictions necessary on the coast. The damage done to the traffic was not very severe, and a new era began when, in February, 1903, a regular shipping service was started on Lake Victoria, which opened absolutely new markets in Uganda and the German part of this country for the Mombasa trade. This gave a further impetus to the shipping companies, and so from the year 1903 the Deutsche Ostafrika Linie sent their main steamers to call regularly at Kilindini. In January, 1904, the Austrian Lloyd increased its service to a monthly one, and in January, 1905, the Messageries Maritimes began to call at Mombasa. The latter event was a noticeable step in the solution of Mombasa's economic subjection to Zanzibar. English travellers used to patronize this French line because at that time it provided the quickest connection with London, but they had always to tranship at Zanzibar, where a British Government steamer used to sail at the end of every month in connection

¹ Colonial Reports, Africa, No. 9, 1901.

with the outward and homeward bound French boats. This service now became superfluous, the passengers saved a day or two of their time, and the Government's ship was spared for other work on the mainland coast.

In accordance with the growing independence of British East Africa, the important European firms which had their headquarters in Zanzibar, opened branches at Mombasa, and many new firms, unconnected with Zanzibar, started business in this port, which promised to become the gateway for a boundless market. After all, it seemed no longer possible to keep Zanzibar and East Africa under joint administration. In 1903, therefore, a separate Commissioner was appointed, with his official residence at Mombasa. On April 13, 1905, the administration of British East Africa and Uganda was transferred from the Foreign to the Colonial Office, and in 1906 the two Commissioners got the rank of Governors.

German interests in British East Africa and Uganda are still entrusted to the Consulate in Zanzibar, but as early as 1899 on account of the growing German interest on the mainland, a trading Vice-Consul was appointed at Mombasa, and ever since 1903 an officer of the Foreign Office has been in charge of the Vice-Consulate there. In Entebbe,

the capital of Uganda, a trading Vice-Consulate was established in 1901.

The statistics in Appendix B, I., show the influence which Zanzibar formerly exerted on the British East Africa market, and how it gradually decreased. It will be remarked that the value of the exports from British East Africa to Zanzibar fell from 83 per cent. of the total in 1898 to between 6 and 9 per cent. during the last five years. The same is the case with the imports. The statistics of the British East Africa Government even show during the last five years, imports from Zanzibar at a value of only £1,000 to £2,500, but they do not include the goods imported via Zanzibar from Europe and Asia.

The various articles of export to Zanzibar are tabulated in Appendix B, II. About 40 per cent. of them can be supposed to be consumed by the Sultanate itself, for the rest Zanzibar is still the distributor of ivory, copal, and cowries. A comparison of the statistics of British and German East Africa shows that the latter's connection with Zanzibar is the closer of the two.

I did not think it beyond the scope of the present essay to dwell in some detail on the relations between Zanzibar on the one hand, and the German and British possessions in East Africa on the other. A description of the commercial development of

these colonies cannot be given without reference to the predominance which the Zanzibar Island had enjoyed in the East African trade. The fact that these territories for many decades had been in economic dependence on this trade centre shows that there must be some similarity in their produce and their needs, and it would be very curious if this were not the case. They are neighbours, they have a similar population, a similar soil, and the same fauna and flora. So it is obvious that the imported articles, as required by the natives, are practically the same, that the same raw products are exported, and on all matters of agricultural and industrial enterprise the conditions must be very similar. Besides, the two Governments were, as regards the administration of their colonies, bound by the same international treaties.

Still, the short historic review which has been given in the preceding pages shows that Germany and England had to act quite differently in order to develop their East African possessions. Germany, in order to set its colony on its feet, had to break down solid commercial ties sanctioned by time. Bagamojo, which was in the days of Arab rule the most flourishing place on the coast, had to be sacrificed; its shallow waters were good enough for dhow traffic, but did not offer anchorage for

steamers in direct communication with Europe. So, in proportion as Daressalam grew, Bagamojo declined. Tanga soon acquired importance under the influence of the Usambara Railway; but this railway did not for a long time penetrate far into the interior, and so all cultural experiments which the German Government made were limited to the tropical parts of the colony.

England, however, had secured for her influence the old centre of East African trade. From Zanzibar Island, where for many years capable Consuls had looked after British interests, the British Government could watch the further development of the new mainland possessions, and they interfered only when the British East Africa Company declared themselves unequal to any further administration. But, then, with the energy which characterizes the British race, they started constructing the Uganda Railway at an expense of about £6,000,000, an enterprise which calls for the highest admiration. As the rails advanced, the colony came gradually into existence as a civilized country; the completion of the line had the effect of opening up the countries of Central East Africa, and not only did British territory benefit by the new route, but also large parts of German East Africa. The fertile Kilima Njaro district, and the German provinces round

Lake Victoria owe their rapid development to this line of communication.

The railway brings the traveller in one day's journey to healthy highlands which, with too much optimism, were regarded as a paradise for European settlement. So the coast-belt was neglected, and at the same time that German pioneers lost their money in experimenting with tropical products, heavy sacrifices were made in British East Africa in order to find out the possibilities of the highlands. It was only a few years ago that the final German successes in tropical products opened the eyes of the English colonists, since when they have started in the coast districts plantations of which the German experiments were the model.

The German colonists were not tempted to make expensive experiments in the highlands because there were no means of communication to open them for settlement. Now that in German East Africa, also, railways are extending more and more into the interior, the experiences gained by their British neighbours will enable the German colonists to avoid losses, and start at once upon the right lines.

It may therefore be said that, with regard to tropical products, Germany was the teacher of England, while on the question of agriculture and stock-raising Germany can learn much from her English neighbours.

CHAPTER II

COMMERCIAL RELATIONS

BEFORE any details about this reciprocity of interests are given, it may be useful to discuss the commercial relations which exist between German East Africa and the two British East African Protectorates.

Direct communication between them is carried on by a number of shipping lines, amongst which the Deutsche Ostafrika Linie, already mentioned, takes the first place. This company, highly subsidized by the Imperial Government, had for many years a regular fortnightly service between Africa and Europe, calling at Mombasa and the important ports of German East Africa. Later on a slight modification was made, in so far as the bigger steamers—the so-called main line—sailed every three weeks, and an intermediate line called every six weeks. In August, 1911, it was decided to resume a four-weekly service.

Apart from this European service, the line keeps

up a regular service between East Africa and India, calling about every fortnight inwards and outwards at the East African ports. In addition to Mombasa, the port of Lamu, in British East Africa, is one of their goals.

Since the beginning of 1909 the Imperial Government of German East Africa sends monthly one of its steamers to connect with the French mail: one steamer of the Messageries Maritimes arriving from, another one leaving for, Europe on the 27th of every month. This service is not of much importance for the general traffic between German East Africa and British East Africa, but connects with a regular coast service which existed between the capital, Daressalam, and the northern ports of German East Africa, and serves as a connecting link for the mails.

A coastal service is carried on by a boat of 629 tons register belonging to an Indian merchant of Zanzibar. She goes from Zanzibar to all the important ports of British East Africa, and calls on her way at Tanga, running about twice a month.

Further connection between the ports of German East Africa and British East Africa is maintained by the Bombay and Persian Steam Navigation Company, flying the British flag, which was started early in 1909 by some Indians for the purpose of

competing with the Deutsche Ostafrika Linie. Their ships, running between India and East and South Africa, call in British East Africa at Lamu and Mombasa, and in the German colony at Tanga and Darassalam. Lately an understanding has been arrived at between the two competing companies, with the result that the Indian line will give up their service in February next.

For a short time, too, the Union Castle Line has carried on shipping between Mombasa and the two southern German ports. In connection with their service to Durban round the Cape, they started in the beginning of this year to send their ships to the north as far as Mombasa, calling on their way at Zanzibar, Darassalam, and Tanga. Since then it has been decided that this service is to be given up, and a direct service of the Union Castle to East Africa through the Suez Canal will be started instead. Those ships will go as far as Durban to the south, but will no longer call at the German ports.

Other shipping lines which serve British East Africa, but not the German ports, are the British India Steam Navigation Company and the French Messageries Maritimes, and quite lately an English cargo line and an Italian company have started a monthly service to East Africa. All those lines are of practically no importance to the trade between

German East Africa and British East Africa ; communication between the respective ports is possible via Zanzibar, but is used only occasionally for the mail and by passengers.

On a moderate scale a dhow service still exists between the German and British ports, which shows, according to the statistics of the Mombasa Port Office, the following figures :

Year.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Dhows.	Tons.	Dhows.	Tons.
1905	45	1,043	95	2,111
1906	63	2,273	134	3,456
1907	58	1,588	71	1,354
1908	53	1,688	87	2,103
1909	66	1,345	66	2,921

There is also some overland communication down the coast between Mombasa and Tanga. Natives often go this way to save the cost of a sea journey, and for this march they need about four days. Last year a postal service was for a short time established between the two places, runners of the respective Governments meeting twice a week on the boundary. The service was soon found superfluous on account



MOMBASA—THE OLD HARBOUR.

TO THE
ATTORNEYS

of the regular shipping communications between the two places.

More desirable would have been a direct telegraphic communication between the German and British possessions. It is so far done by cable via Zanzibar, and a word costs the extravagant sum of half a rupee (= 67 pfennige). A further disadvantage was that the cable between Mombasa and Zanzibar was often interrupted in former times, because at its entrance into the Kilindini Harbour it went over a coral reef; so it was suggested by the German Government that an overland line should be constructed between Mombasa and Tanga, and that each Power should bear the cost of constructing the section in its own territory. This would have meant seventy-two miles for the British and about thirty miles for the German Government. The former was of opinion that the advantages offered by the arrangement would not justify the cost, and so the plan was given up.

At present the Government of British East Africa is inclined to erect a Marconi station at Mombasa, which would connect with the wireless telegraph stations at Pemba and Zanzibar. This would at any rate offer further facilities for the trade with German East Africa.

The direct trade between German East Africa and

British East Africa—Uganda will be dealt with later—showed in the last year a total value of £21,611. Details are given in the lists in Appendix C. List I. gives the gradual increase of the imports and exports to and from British East Africa since 1903, and shows that at this time there were no imports at all from German East Africa, whilst the exports to it were only valued at £1,065. In Lists II. and III. the various articles of import and export since 1904 are enumerated. The imports from German East Africa to British East Africa are far higher than those from British East Africa to German East Africa; they amounted in the last year to £17,079, or 2·2 per cent. of the total imports to British East Africa; whilst the exports from British East Africa to German East Africa represent in the last year, which shows a higher figure than all the preceding years, only £4,532, or 0·8 per cent. of the total exports. For the Budget of German East Africa, which in 1909 had total imports of £1,697,085 and exports of £655,975, these figures are simply infinitesimal.

The exchange of goods between the two countries is chiefly limited to produce of agriculture and stock-raising. British East Africa forwards to the German colony a regular supply of ghee (native butter), which comes from the Jubaland, a country rich in cattle;

and since 1904 potatoes have been exported from the highlands near Nairobi to the German coast towns. German East Africa is a supplier of grain—especially rice—to its British neighbour, as well as of various provisions which are not specially classified in the statistics—chiefly sugar and salt. It forwards also some native tobacco, and, since 1905, a regular supply of seeds and plants for the making of plantations. Hides and skins, ivory and rubber, which also form items in the statistics, ought to be excluded from them, as these articles are only imported to the British territory for re-export. But even if we deduct the figures which those articles represent in the last years—viz., £4,900—there still remains a respectable amount which German East Africa contributes to the needs of the British colony.

The overland trade near the coast is of no commercial importance whatever ; it is limited merely to an occasional exchange of the daily needs of the natives, and remains uncontrolled. Farther inland the districts near the boundary are not inhabited until one reaches Kilima Njaro, which country, together with the districts round the lake, is the base of the mutual trade between German East Africa and British East Africa. On the north-east of the lake, Uganda has a common boundary with German East Africa and regular shipping communi-

cations. Here the commercial interests of these two Protectorates meet.

The commercial relations between the respective territories would not be important if they were limited to a direct exchange of goods. The chief point of interest lies in the part which the Uganda Railway takes, as a channel for a large percentage of German East Africa's trade.

According to the official statistics of the Imperial German Government for the calendar year 1909, the transit traffic of German East Africa through British East Africa and Uganda represented a value of £328,109, or 14 per cent. of the total trade of German East Africa—£173,013, or 10 per cent. of the total, applying to imports; £150,096, or 23 per cent., to exports.

A detailed table, which shows the gradual increase of the general transit traffic since 1904, is given in Appendix D. It will be found that the figures for the imports, as well as for the exports, for the last year are nearly three times as high as in 1904.

The German figures can be checked by the British statistics, which are compiled in Appendix E. The Custom House at Mombasa keeps detailed statistics about the export articles, showing separately the part which Uganda, the Congo Free State, and German East Africa take; whilst for the import

only, the total figures of all transit goods are given. So the value of the German transit export is given with some accuracy, while the value of the imports can only be estimated. It can, however, be said that of all imported articles declared as transit goods through British East Africa, at least 90 per cent. go to German territory.

A slight difference which on comparison may be remarked between the British and German statistics results from the fact that the former are given for the financial year, from April to March. Moreover, the prices of goods, as declared in the Custom House of Mombasa, differ, of course, from the value which they represent at the German place of entrance and exit.

It may not be out of the way to mention here the legal regulations affecting the transit traffic through British East Africa.¹

Goods imported for conveyance by the Uganda Railway and declared for transit have to pass through the Custom House at Kilindini. Kilindini is the southern and more important of the two harbours of Mombasa Island. The usual import duty has to be paid at the place of entry, but will be refunded if the goods are re-exported within six months, at the option of the transit agent, either at

¹ The Customs Ordinance, No. 14 of 1910.

the place of entrance or the place of exit. A bill of entry, with detailed descriptions of the merchandises, in triplicate, must be presented by the transit agent to the proper officer of customs. The original and duplicate is retained by the customs-officer; the triplicate, marked with a *visé* by him, is returned to the transit-agent, who forwards it to the customs-officer at the place of exit.

When goods capable of being easily identified, which have been imported and upon which duties have been paid in importation, are re-exported within twelve calendar months, the duty is also refunded.

For all transit and re-exported goods only a charge of 25 cents per package is made. The regulations about transit trade through Uganda are nearly the same,¹ only, as a rule, no refund of export duty paid on merchandise passing through the Protectorate is made; but the export duty on ivory, rubber, and hides, imported into the Protectorate from the adjoining territories of German East Africa and the Belgian Congo, and not declared in transit, are reduced by the amount of import duty proved to have been paid.

The parts of German East Africa which owe their development more or less to the Uganda Railway

¹ Goods in Transit Ordinance, No. 7 of 1909.

are the Kilima Njaro and the provinces round Lake Victoria.

The centre of administration in the Kilima Njaro district is Moschi; its distance from Tanga is 352 km., and from Taveta, the English station on the boundary, 43 km. The distance between Taveta and Voi, the nearest station of the Uganda Railway, is about 80 km. Voi is situated at mile 103 (km. 165) of the Uganda Railway from Mombasa. The present head of the Usambara Railway, Same, is at km. 252 from Tanga, or 100 km. away from Moschi.¹

There was not much trade in the Kilima Njaro district when first the German Government took it under its administration, the chief article of export being ivory, which was mostly brought down to Pangani. Other caravan roads went to Tanga, Vanga, and Mombasa. A French mission, which soon after settled on the mountain, chose this route to the English port, where they had an agent. For the journey to Mombasa caravans required about fourteen days, and twenty-three to Tanga.²

The establishment of the German administration, of course, drew the trade more to Tanga, which

¹ At the end of March, 1911, the service was opened as far as km. 298. Cf. *K.B.*, 1911, pp. 453-454.

² *K.B.*, 1894, pp. 478-485.

offered the advantage of regular shipping communication, and after the completion of the Usambara Railway as far as Muhesa, in 1895, several days on "safari"¹ were saved.

But this state of affairs soon changed when, in 1897, the Uganda Railway reached Voi, and the port of Mombasa was supplied with increased shipping facilities.

I was unable to find reliable figures about the transit traffic of Moschi through British East Africa in the years 1898 to 1902. In 1903 the British statistics show an export of German transit goods of £6,107, which must chiefly be ascribed to the Kilima Njaro district, as the shipping service on Lake Victoria, which opened the north-western parts of German East Africa, was at that time just beginning.

In 1904 the figures for exports from Moschi in transit through British East Africa amounted to £9,123; in the following four years they fell to an average of between £6,000 and £7,500; and in the last year they grew again to £8,800. The imports have been gradually increasing from £6,100 in 1903 to £15,000 in 1908, and in 1909 represented a value of nearly £22,000. The figures for 1910 are still

¹"Safari," a Swahili word of Arabic origin, means both "march" and "caravan."

more promising, the imports in the first six months of the year amounting to £15,000.

Amongst imported articles, the first place is naturally taken by cotton goods, which showed in the last four years an average figure of £5,000. Hardware in 1909 was imported to the extent of £1,350, which means, compared with the preceding three years, an increase of more than double; corrugated iron shows also a considerable rise.

The total goods imported to Moschi via Taveta amounted, according to German statistics in 1908, to 235,043 kg., and in 1909 to 339,858 kg.

The total exports were 113,582 kg. in 1908 and 150,591 kg. in 1909. The principal goods exported in 1909 were :

			£
Hides and skins	value	4,150
Coffee	"	2,350
Ivory	"	2,000
Cotton	"	125
Beeswax	"	123

The export of coffee from the Kilima Njaro through British East Africa was stopped for some time by measures which the British Government took in order to prevent the spread of a disease which they thought originated in German East Africa. Coffee imported for local consumption had to be roasted. If it was introduced into the Pro-

tectorate for export—*i.e.*, if it was carried in transit through the Protectorate—it was to be packed in double canvas sacks, in petroleum tins, or in lined wooden cases, and sealed by the customs-officer at the place of entry. These restrictions were first felt to be irksome by the planters, but in course of time they got accustomed to them. The difference in the cost of transport between the Tanga and Mombasa route was so great that the higher costs for packing could be easily borne.

Another regulation, which handicaps the trade between British East Africa and the Kilima Njaro in some way, has been issued by the German Government with reference to the import of live stock. To avoid the spread of disease, it has been ordained that all live stock entering German East Africa from British East Africa must be imported via one of the seaports. On numerous occasions an exception is made to this rule when the Imperial Consulate of Mombasa recommends it, the condition being, of course, that these animals are previously examined by a competent veterinary officer.

From Voi it is a march of three or four days to the German boundary. The first station is Bura, where the Algerian Fathers have a settlement. From there a plain, nearly waterless in the dry season, has to be crossed until Taveta, the British

frontier station, with a District Commissioner and a customs-clerk, is reached. From Taveta it is two days' march to Moschi, on Kilima Njaro. This is the time in which a regular caravan does the "safari," heavy transports requiring, as a rule, a little over a week.

The traffic is mostly done by carts. From Voi to Taveta, donkeys—the so-called Wangamwezi specimens—are used as relays; there they are replaced by oxen. The former service by porters has been abandoned as a means of regular communication, the service by carts being a good deal cheaper. There have been schemes to start a regular motor-car connection between Voi and the Kilima Njaro district, but so far without any result. The chief obstacles responsible for this failure are the bad state of the roads and the lack of water. The ground—especially on the English section of the way—is not firm enough, consisting of loose sand, and thus offering a bad foundation for road construction. All efforts which the British Government has made, and on which it has spent large sums, suffered from this geological formation. The roads in the Moschi district, with a subsoil of clay, are in a better condition.

Last year a well-known German, who has been trading in British East Africa for over ten years,

tried to float a company, with a capital of £5,000, to run a motor-car service on a big scale. Nothing has been heard since of the scheme, and so it is to be supposed that he could not raise sufficient money.

The idea would have been a good one if it had been started ten years ago ; but the present development draws the Kilima Njaro trade from the Uganda Railway away to the Usambara Railway. It is now only a march of three to four days from Moschi to the rail-head, and at the end of next year the line will probably have reached this place. A good deal of the Moschi trade—according to official estimates, about 20 per cent.—is already diverted to Tanga, and it is only due to the wise tariff policy of the Uganda Railway that this line can still compete with the Usambara Railway.

The following statistics may be of interest :

A cart carries about 1,200 lbs. For one hundred-weight Rs. $3\frac{1}{2}$ to Rs. 4 are charged from the Kilima Njaro down to Voi. For the up traffic the rate is Rs. 6 to Rs. 7. This means about Rs. 75 a ton for exported, Rs. 130 for imported, goods, from or to Voi. The rates between Moschi and Same, the present terminus of the Usambara Railway, are nearly identical. The Usambara Railway has only three classes of trade goods—general, special No. 1, and special No. 2. General goods are charged



OVER THE MAU ESCARPMENT, UGANDA RAILWAY.

70 .vnu
alpoqluo

3 cents¹ per 100 kg. per kilometre, or, if loaded in full waggons, 2.5 cents; special No. 1 pays 1.5 or 1.25 cents; special No. 2, 0.75 or 0.6 cent. Special No. 1 includes imported goods for the use of natives, agricultural implements, building materials, and hides. Special No. 2 comprises produce of plantations, agriculture, and live stock. For ivory an additional charge of 50 per cent. is made to the rate for general goods. The distance between Same and Tanga is 252 km. This means, approximately, for general trade goods Rs. 75 or Rs. 62.50, for special No. 1 Rs. 37.50 or Rs. 31.25, and special No. 2 Rs. 18.75 or Rs. 15.

The Uganda Railway has seven different tariff classes and charges, and charges the following rates per 100 lbs. per mile :

Special class, 0.28 cent; intermediate, 0.45 cent; first, 0.60 cent; second, 1 cent; third, 1.40 cents; fourth, 2.50 cents; fifth, 5.50 cents.

Full waggon-loads of certain country products are charged special cheap rates for a ten-ton truck.

Most of the exported articles from the Moschi district belong to the special class; beeswax is in the first class, ivory in the second class.

Amongst imported articles, cotton goods are charged in the second, hardware and building

¹ 100 cents = 1 rupee in Uganda and British East Africa.

44 BRITISH AND GERMAN EAST AFRICA

materials in the first, agricultural implements in the special class.

So the transport of the principal trade goods of Kilima Njaro district is approximately charged as follows :

	Between Voi and Mombasa (per ton).	Between Same and Tanga (per ton).
	Rs.	Rs.
Hides	6.50	37.50
Skins	6.50	18.75
Coffee-beans	6.50	18.75
Beeswax	13.93	71.00
Ivory	127.00	112.50
Cotton clothes	23.08	37.50
Building materials	13.93	37.50
Hardware	13.93	37.50
Agricultural implements	6.50	37.50

So the only article which is transported cheaper on the Usambara Railway is ivory, which can easily stand a high-freight rate. On all the other goods the difference of transport is greatly in favour of the Uganda Railway, and it is no wonder that traders and farmers prefer to bear the discomfort which the transit through a foreign country naturally involves, instead of paying the extravagant charges of the home railway.

Those statistics are, of course, only accurate for places which are equidistant from the two railway-stations. The farther the Usambara Railway pro-

ceeds, the more its chances grow of securing the trade of the district. A new tariff is now under consideration, and it is to be hoped that it will be more specialized and will pay regard to the capacity of every article to bear higher or lower rates.

The total traffic of the station at Voi in 1909-10 was 587 tons outwards and 1,235 tons inwards; and the railway authorities estimate that about 1,000 to 1,200 of the total were to and from Kilima Njaro.

The first German station on Lake Victoria, Bukoba, was founded by Emin Pasha in 1890. In the following year the station at Muansa was established.¹ The headquarters were first at Bukoba, but at the beginning of 1893 they were transferred to Muansa,² and in 1898 a sub-station was founded near the English boundary at Schirati.

In 1891 and 1892 the executive committee of the German anti-slavery lottery sent several expeditions to the lake, with the intention of building a wharf there and of starting a regular boat-service.³ The plan was given up, as it was found that there was hardly any slave-trading to be suppressed on the

¹ *K.R.*, 1891, pp. 185 and 204.

² *Ibid.*, 1894, p. 14.

³ *Ibid.*, 1891, p. 341; and 1892, pp. 438-443.

lake ; but, as a final result, an aluminium steam-launch was sent up to Muansa, which remained at the disposal of the chief of the station.

Already, in the first year, very favourable reports were sent from the stations about the agricultural possibilities of the country ; wheat, rice, potatoes, live stock did well in the Muansa district ; at Bukoba coffee was the chief produce.

Friendly relations were maintained with the English authorities in Uganda. In December, 1890, we find already that the Commander of Bukoba and the manager of the British East Africa Company issued a joint regulation¹ about the boat traffic on the lake. During the troubles which soon arose in Uganda the German officers granted their neighbours valuable assistance. In February, 1892, Catholic missionaries who had to flee the country found an asylum at Bukoba.² In October, 1892, the Commander of this station reports that he assisted the British officers with a loan of 200 gora of cotton goods.³

The general caravan road to the lake went from the coast past Mpapua and Tabora to Muansa ; from there communication was carried on by native canoes to Bukoba and the English station Kampala.

¹ *K.B.*, 1891, p. 261.

² *Ibid.*, 1892, p. 313.

³ *Ibid.*, 1893, pp. 111-112.

In 1892 a regular postal service was started to the coast, under the management of a German firm, in contract with the Imperial Government. Their expeditions went once a month, and took ninety days to get from the coast to the lake.¹ A direct route, which went from Kampala through British territory over Lake Baringo, was not much in favour on account of the hostility of the native tribes; so nearly all trade, even from Uganda and Unyoro, went through the German colony, their chief export being ivory, their imports cotton goods, beads, and wire.

In 1893 the Irish trader Stokes, who had a settlement at Muansa, sent from there to the coast ivory of the value of nearly £20,000, which he had brought from the Congo Free State; in 1899, 520 caravans, with 3,419 porters, passed the station of Bukoba on their way from and to the western provinces of Uganda.

But, for the same year, the Commander of Muansa had to report a decline in the trade from the German to British territory. At the time of his report, early in 1900, the terminus of the Uganda Railway was still a march of fourteen days distant from the lake. He mentions that a load from the German coast to Muansa cost at that time

¹ *K.B.*, 1892, p. 253.

Rs. 35, and needed a transport time of ninety days, whilst the same load was brought to Entebbe in twenty-one days for a charge of Rs. 25.¹

In 1899 the value of goods transported from Uganda to Mombasa amounted already to £30,272; in 1900 to £25,385.

A complete change was caused when the administration of the Uganda Railway started a regular shipping service on the lake. In the early days the trade was done by Waganda canoes and dhows, but a great number of these were destroyed during the political troubles; later some European sailing-boats, and, since 1895, even an English steamboat, handled the traffic. The first steamer of the railway, the *Winifred*, with a displacement of 700 tons, and 550 h.p., was launched in February, 1903, but only served the British ports. Another steamer of the same size, the *Sybil*, was added early in 1904, and called also at the German ports. Both ships carry 150 tons of cargo, and have accommodation for ten first-class and eight second-class passengers. In 1906 followed the *Clement Hill*, of 1,100 tons, 250 tons cargo capacity, and accommodation for sixteen first and twelve second-class passengers. Her engines have 635 h.p. A special cargo boat, the *Nyanza*, was launched at the end of 1907, with

¹ *K.B.*, 1901, p. 484.

550 h.p., a displacement of 1,146 tons, and 525 tons cargo capacity. All these ships have twin screws, and run between nine and ten miles an hour. A tug of 100 tons, *Percy Anderson*, with 60 h.p., and a speed of seven to eight knots has been running on the Lake since December, 1907.

With these ships the Uganda Railway carries on a weekly service between Port Florence, the terminus of the line, and the Uganda ports. Three or four times a month, too, trips round the Lake are made, and the German ports Schirati, Muansa, and Bukoba, are called at.

According to a report of the manager of the Uganda Railway, in the second half of 1903, 28 tons of rice were landed at Port Florence, of which a good deal was German produce. The regular transport from the German ports down the Uganda Railway started, of course, only in 1904. Since, as the statistics in Appendix F show, a remarkable increase is to be noticed.

The Assistant-Chief of the German Customs, Herr Broschell, who came at the end of 1904 on a tour of inspection to the German Lake ports, wrote a very favourable report on the commercial possibilities of this part of the colony, and paid in it a high tribute to the work done by the railway administration. He praises their courtesy in tariffing, and mentions

that, to facilitate the loading, they had procured several big iron lighters at Muansa and Bukoba which cost £1,000 each. They had also offered to erect a pier and warehouse at Muansa, and to construct a cart-road at Tabora, in order to attract the trade from there. The pier was consequently built soon afterwards by the railway for the German Government.¹

At the time of Broschell's report, the traffic on the Lake was done by the *Sybil* and *Winifred* and about 20 dhows. As exported articles he mentions hides and skins, ground-nuts, rice, simsim, cotton, live stock, and samli. The wages for labourers amounted to Rs. 2 and Rs. 3 a month, and this made it possible, in spite of the cost of transport, for ground-nuts to be cultivated on the Lake at a paying rate, which was impossible on the coast on account of the high price of labour. The trade in hides and skins had already caused two European firms at Mombasa to appoint agents at Schirati, and the *Deutschostafrikanische Gesellschaft* had settled at Muansa since 1898, and had transactions to the extent of Rs. 250,000. The well-known merchant Alidina Visram, who used to open branches at every promising place in the interior, was estimated to do at Muansa a yearly business of Rs. 300,000, importing about Rs. 200,000 and exporting Rs. 100,000 worth.

¹ K.B., 1905, pp. 236-238.

A German farmer had settled two days inland from Mombasa, and did good work in expanding the cotton cultivation among the natives. He gave them free seed, and bought their crops for 4 pice (about 1d.) a pound unginne. Another farmer went in for live stock, and started a rubber plantation.

In the Bukoba district twenty-three trading firms were already settled, amongst these four European houses, three of whom dealt in hides and skins. There was, in addition to the above-mentioned articles, a small export of coffee, which grows wild in the Hinterland.

The Custom duties collected in the Lake ports showed the following figures :

Year.	Muansa.	Schirati.	Bukoba.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1900	120	240	5
1901	888	262	102
1902	7,885	2,688	2,686
1903	20,505	6,504	7,197

From April to August, 1904, the following earnings were reported :

	Muansa.	Schirati.	Bukoba.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
April	4,216	957	4,413
May	3,936	1,490	1,998
June	3,851	325	8,625
July	5,386	1,782	8,702
August	7,368	Unknown.	7,853

And from September to November the average sum which the Custom House at Muansa collected every month was valued at Rs. 11,000, and, looking at this figure, it has to be taken into consideration that some of the important exported goods, such as grain, are free of duty.

The export of the principal articles amounted in the calendar year 1903 at Muansa to 71,185 marks; Schirati, 19,768 marks; and Bukoba, 22,184 marks; or a total of £5,657. The import to Muansa to 208,792 marks, Schirati to 43,025 marks, and Bukoba to 86,482 marks, or a total of £12,912. The further development of the transit trade from and to the German Lake ports can be seen in Appendix D.

The chief articles of export were from the beginning hides and skins. The number exported from Muansa during the calendar year 1903 represented a value of £1,200, those from Schirati £600, and from Bukoba £1,200. In 1904 the exports from Bukoba amounted already to a quantity of 300 tons, valued at £21,500; the corresponding figures were for Muansa 277 tons, valued at £12,900, and for Schirati 44 tons, with a value of £3,100. The highest figures were reached in 1907, viz.:

Place.				£	Tons.
Muansa	44,863	748
Bukoba	22,052	298
Schirati	3,188	43

The year 1908 shows a slight decrease, owing to the general depression of the American market. The figures for 1909 are not yet known in detail, but are assumed to be equal to those of 1907. Less in value, but higher in quantity, is the export of ground-nuts, especially from Muansa—viz :

Year.			Tons.	£
1904	579	1,754
1905	1,044	4,994
1906	2,402	16,613
1907	577	5,172
1908	1,244	10,502

Schirati exported yearly between 100 and 500 tons, and since 1907 Bukoba has also shipped some hundred tons.

The latter port uses the Uganda Railway especially as a conveyance for coffee, of which, since 1905, average quantities of 200 to 300 tons, at a value of £2,500 to £4,500, have been exported.

The quantity of cattle in the Muansa district is conducive to the export of samli, which averaged in the years 1900 to 1907 between 100 and 180 tons, at a value of £2,000 to £5,000; 1908 shows a slight decrease.

The export of wild rubber from Muansa ranged from 12 to 20 tons; the figures for simsim rose to 23 tons for 1906.

Schirati exported in 1907 27 tons of hemp at a value of £600.

The export of ivory from the German Lake ports through British East Africa has never reached a high figure. The ivory from Uganda goes, of course, direct to the coast, since the completion of the railway, and so do the greater number of the tusks coming from the Congo State. Ivory is, besides, an article which can stand a long transport by caravan, and so is not in such need of rapid transit, the more so as it has to pay the highest tariff. Still, Bukoba exported in 1908 nearly a ton, at a value of £900; Muansa, 360 kg. at £400; and Schirati, 203 kg. at £260. According to English statistics the German ivory export in transit amounted in the financial year (April to March) to—

1907.		1908.		1909.
£		£		£
965	...	2,076	...	2,462

And during the months April to July in 1910 to £707. A part of this came from the Kilima Njaro, but most was exported from the Lake ports, among which Bukoba takes the first place. Probably a good deal of this ivory is the produce of the Congo State.

Beeswax has formed an article of export from the Lake ports, since 1905, when Muansa started with



APPROACH TO FORT TERNAN, UGANDA RAILWAY.

To vnu
Alphonso

shipping 174 tons, at a value of £18,000. In 1907 the highest figures were reached with 323 tons, of £33,500 value, from Muansa, and 43 tons, of £4,500, from Bukoba. The British statistics show for the financial year 1907 a total German transit value of £43,970, which decreased in 1908 to £22,293, and in 1909 to £8,982. The decline is mainly due to the shortage of produce in German East Africa; but the principal point which is responsible for the decrease of the transit through British East Africa is the dislocation of the traffic, caused by the construction of the Central Railway from Daressalam. The centre of the wax production in German East Africa is the Wanyamwezi country round Tabora, which, until 1907, used to send its produce to Muansa. Since the rails have reached Mrogoro (km. 209) it seemed more profitable to send this article, which is easily transported and, owing to its high value, can bear the transport costs, to the German coast. A similar experience has been met with in hides and skins, with the exception that these articles, the relative value and weight of which are not equally favourable, remain more under the influence of the nearest railway communication. So the transit of hides and skins shows in its quantity as yet no new remarkable decrease; but the fact that the export from Muansa

sank from 748 tons in 1907 to 437 tons in 1908, whilst in the same time the export via Daressalam rose from 33 to 47 tons, is a proof of the growing influence of the Central Railway.

The same remarks apply to the principal imported articles—viz., cotton goods. The import via Muansa fell from 681 tons in 1907 to 310 tons in 1908, and it may be admitted that this decrease was principally due to the bad commercial conditions on the Lake, caused by the shortage of exports in hides and skins on account of the American crisis, the consequence of which was an impoverishment of the natives, who could not afford to buy imported clothes at the former rates. But as at the same time the imports via Daressalam increased from 481 to 542 tons, it may be concluded that a good deal of the trade goods, which before found their way to the Colony over the Uganda Railway, were brought to the market by the Central Railway.

Also, all the travellers to and from Tabora and Lake Tanganyika, especially the German officers stationed there, frequented the route through British East Africa only until about 1906, since when they usually travel direct overland from and to Daressalam.

The British import statistics show a transit of £189,647, £157,020, and £228,002, from 1907 to

1909, and it can be taken that at least 90 per cent. of this was destined for German East Africa. The total imports into German East Africa amounted in those years, roughly speaking, to £1,190,000, £1,289,300, and £1,697,000.

This shows that, though the rate of transit was somewhat higher in 1909 than in previous years, it fell far short of the total of the imports.

The rails now reach as far as Dodoma at km. 471, and in the middle of 1912 Tabora (km. 850) will be reached.¹ So, by-and-by, the German transit trade through British East Africa will show a most remarkable decrease, at least in the percentage of the total trade of the German colony. The quantity and value of goods transported through British East Africa will not sink in the same way, because every year the development of the Lake districts will make further progress.

Two articles especially, which in the last year have been successfully cultivated on the Lake, will depend for some time on the facilities offered by the Uganda Railway—viz., cotton and rice.

The export of cotton from Muansa has increased from 10 tons in 1907 to 21 tons in 1908, and 22 tons

¹ At the end of May, 1911, the rails had reached km. 664-665. Cf. *K.B.*, 1911, p. 453. Details about the construction of the Central Railway, together with a good map, are given in *K.B.*, 1911, pp. 273-276.

in 1909. For the first six months of 1910 an export of 11 tons, of a value of £885, is reported.

More striking still is the increase in rice exported from that port. It represented in 1904 a figure of 432 tons, which fell in the following year to 387 tons ; but since then has shown a gradual rise to 698, 752, and 794, until in the last year it fell again to 345 tons. In the first six months of the current year 265 tons, at a value of £2,000, were exported. The shortage in export is not due to the shortage of production, but to the fact that a good deal of the article is used locally, especially in the gold-mines of Sekenke ; even the Tabora market is provided with rice from Muansa. A new impetus in the cultivation of rice has been given by the Deutsche Nyanza-Schiffahrts-gesellschaft, which started husking-works at the beginning of this year. They have twelve different machines, which are worked by steam. The firing is done by wood and husks. According to information which I owe to the courtesy of the manager of this company, they exported during the time from February to August last 200 tons of white rice into British territory, whilst 150 tons were sold locally. Most of the export went to Jinja, in Uganda ; smaller quantities to Nairobi and Mombasa. A good deal even goes in transit from Muansa through British East Africa to the German Coast ports. The

total transit amounted in the time from April, 1909, to March, 1910, to 763 cwt., at a value of £243. The rice is more highly valued than the best Indian sort.

The exports to the coast will increase further, since the Uganda Railway has reduced the freight rates. For a ten-ton truck, loaded with grain, seeds, and similar country produce, from Muansa to Mombasa, Rs. 348.75 are charged according to the tariff. At the request of the manager of the company, it has been decided to give them a reduction of 40 per cent. The production of the Muansa district is supposed to be 4,000,000 lbs. a year, but could easily be many times more. The factory works ten hours a day, and prepares in this time 6,000 kg. white rice out of 10,000 kg. husked rice.

The company keeps a flotilla of three steam-tugs and two iron lighters, which are sent to the smaller Lake ports to carry the native produce from there to the factory. They also have a steam-launch for passenger traffic, and two more steam-boats are in course of construction. The manager is full of praise for the assistance he receives from the Uganda Railway. The company's boats have been brought up by this line, and engineers of the railway have fitted them out at Port Florence, where

also all necessary repairs are made at rates which could not be cheaper at home. This shows the keen interest which the Uganda Railway has in keeping the Muansa district as a regular feeder. On the other hand, it is understood that the Nyanza-Schiffahrtsgesellschaft limit their shipping to the German part of the Lake, and do not interfere with the direct traffic to Port Florence.

The gold-mines at Sekenke, about a week inland from Muansa, have still to be mentioned. They have been working since 1906, in which year an export of 30 lbs., at a value of £1,600, is first reported by the British statistics. Last year a new stamp, worked by steam, has been erected, since when the exports show a noticeable increase. In 1909, 111 kg., and in the first half of the current year 166 kg., have been treated, which passed over the Uganda Railway. As the freights are very high, it is likely that the mines will soon fall within the sphere of influence of the German Central Railway. A similar change has taken place with the gold in the Congo State at Kilo, near Lake Albert. It was shipped during the years 1906 to 1908, via Uganda and British East Africa to the East Coast, but since then it has been found cheaper to send it directly to the Atlantic.

The probable future development of the German

transit trade through British East Africa will be dealt with in a later chapter; here it may only be mentioned that Muansa will gradually fall under the influence of the Central Railway, especially if a good road, suitable for motor-car traffic, be constructed between Muansa and Tabora. There is a rumour that a contractor, who had experience with motor traffic in South-West Africa, is floating a company for this purpose. On the other hand, the trade of Bukoba has a great future, and will for some time depend on the Uganda Railway. The Hinterland of this port, Ruanda and Urundi, is very fertile, and offers a great field for agriculture and stock-farming. The natives there are intelligent and more adaptable to cultivation than the generality of African tribes.

The direct trade between the German Lake ports and the adjacent British territories is of but little importance. There is no overland traffic at all between the Schirati district and British East Africa, the boundary being closed on account of the sleeping-sickness, which is endemic there.

The overland trade between the Bukoba district and Uganda is supposed to be limited to a yearly value of about £200. It passes through the military station at Kifumbiro, and consists chiefly of small quantities of salt and of bark clothes, the former

being exported by the natives in exchange for the latter articles. Occasionally also some ivory is exported. The custom duty has to be paid at the Custom House at Bukoba, and the station of Kifumbiro controls the passage. The German Vice-Consul at Entebbe is of opinion that there is besides some occasional smuggling of cattle from the German territory.

The regular shipping service carried on between the German and British ports by the railway boats has already been mentioned. Apart from this, a dhow traffic is done on a moderate scale. The Custom Office at Schirati reports for 1909 the following number of dhows between this port and British places :

German dhows : entered, 37, with 749 tons ; cleared, 37, with 350 tons.

English dhows : entered, 34, with 497 tons ; cleared, 26, with 388 tons.

The corresponding figures for Muansa were : sixteen German dhows, at 546 tons, arrived ; and thirteen at 444 tons, cleared ; no British dhows.

Bukoba : one German dhow, at 60 tons, entered ; two, at 80 tons, cleared. Twenty British dhows, at 737 tons, entered ; twenty-two, at 780 tons, cleared.

The total imports from German East Africa into

Uganda, and vice versa the exports, were according to statistics of this Protectorate :

	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
Imports ...	£ 895	£ 1,792	£ 1,898	£ 1,072	£ 2,798	£ 279	£ 4,726	£ 1,817
Exports ...	1	1	1	1	1	2,604	2,715	2,862

In the figures for export, the transit trade through the Protectorate is included ; of the produce of the country itself only a very small part went to German East Africa, and in 1909 native mats at a value of £57, and 424 gallons of simsim oil at a value of £57, and some cotton-seed were exported to the district of Muansa and Bukoha. Besides, some furniture, which was made in an Indian joinery at Entebbe, for the district and post offices at Muansa, was exported, of the value of £490 in 1908, and £168 in 1909.

The exports from German East Africa to Uganda consist mainly of rice and cattle. The figures were—

	1907.		1908.		1909.	
	Owt.	£	Owt.	£	Owt.	£
Rice ...	5,111	2,832	7,006	3,155	3,890	1,395
Cattle ...	Head. 326	£ 369	Head. 1,023	£ 1,167	Head. 100	£ 138

The sums which the Uganda Railway earns from the German transit traffic can be seen in the list in Appendix F, which gives the gross receipts derived from bookings to and from German Lake ports since the inauguration of the Lake steamer service. The idea which it gives is not absolutely correct, because it shows only the goods actually booked to and from those places. So, for instance, if a traveller first takes a ticket to Nairobi, and proceeds thence from there to a German Lake port, the statistics give only the price of the ticket from the last place, though in most cases he has used the whole line for his journey. Further, goods which have been shipped by dhow from a German Lake port, and reach the railway only at Port Florence, do not appear in the statistics, nor do those goods which have come up the line and go by dhow to German Lake ports. The figures thus lost in the statistics of the German transit trade on account of the dhow shipping were, according to a report of the German Consulate of Mombasa, about 2,000 tons in 1904 and 1,500 tons in 1905. Since, as has been shown already, the dhow traffic has decreased more and more.

The German Government paid to the Uganda Railway for official goods sent up to their stations through their Mombasa agents—

In 1907-8 (March to April)	...	Rs. 19,800
In 1908-9	"	... 22,950
In 1909-10	"	... 13,050

The total gross receipts of the Uganda Railway are compiled in Appendix F; and the percentage of revenue given by the different countries that the railway serves are, according to the last Annual Report of the Chief Accountant, as follows :

	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908. 1909.	1909.
British East Africa ...	54	47	48	45	42	50
Uganda and the Congo	32	32	28	30	37	30
German East Africa ...	14	21	24	25	23	20

So we find the amazing fact that the British railway is based for one-fifth of its financial success on the trade of the neighbouring German colony, and the latter owes, as the statistics in Appendix D show, approximately the same percentage of its trade to this means of communication.

It may further be pointed out that all those who use the Uganda line for travelling to and from the Kilima Njaro and the German Lake ports usually have to stop some days—sometimes over a week—in

British East Africa, to wait for the next communication. That means a good deal of money which residents of German East Africa spend in the hotels and shops of Mombasa, or wherever they may break their journey.

The beneficial influence which the Uganda Railway had on the development of the German East African trade could not, of course, be underestimated by the German authorities. They learnt that broad-minded investments in new countries were paying; and if in the first year this institution was worked at a considerable loss—and even up to the present only a moderate interest is earned on the capital expended—it pays and justifies its existence in a hundred different ways. The revenue from Customs duties is increasing from year to year; the taxation of natives in the most distant districts makes continual progress; the country is pacified; the slave-trade is suppressed; diseases and famines can be combated easily; flourishing towns have been founded in the interior; new products have been made accessible to the markets of the world; and scores of settlers have found a new home in the new country.

So the results of this railway were necessarily a stimulus for German enterprise; and when at last the Reichstag granted the means for the prolonga-

tion of the Usambara and the construction of the Central Railway, the Uganda Railway could be used as a pattern. The mistakes which were made could be avoided, and whatever had stood the test of time could be adopted. Long before a definite Bill was brought before the Reichstag, the Colonial Office had made inquiries about all the details of construction and working of the Uganda Railway—rails, sleepers, bridges, engines, administration, tariffs, catering, and so on—and if everything has not been imitated, it has been at least an object of careful consideration.

Finally, it may be pointed out that the Uganda Railway is also used for the postal service of German East Africa. In 1905 an arrangement was made between the respective Governments that letters to and from the German Lake ports are carried in transit through British East Africa at a fixed rate, which varies according to the weight of the bags forwarded. In 1908 this service was extended to parcels as well.

CHAPTER III

ECONOMIC RELATIONS

As regards further economic relations between the respective colonies, a certain unity results from the fact that they all lie within the zone of the Berlin Congo Act.

Their Customs policy has, therefore, a common basis ; and, indeed, if we compare the tariffs in force in the German colony with those of British East Africa and Uganda, we find a most remarkable resemblance. The tariffs for the two British Protectorates are practically identical.

A general import duty of 10 per cent. *ad valorem* is being levied on most goods. Distilled liquors, and in German East Africa wine and beer, are charged at a higher rate ; while those goods which are able to further the development of the country are admitted free of duty, as, for instance, plants and seeds intended for cultivation, manures and insecticides, agricultural implements and industrial machinery, material for transport, etc.

As regards export duties, the German and British regulations are so far in unison that they make no charge on any plantation produce. The chief objects of duty are the natural raw products of the country—such as ivory, hides and skins, gum copal, wild-grown rubber, cowries, and shells. Ivory is charged a 15 per cent. duty in both territories. Hides and skins pay in the British Protectorate 10, in German East Africa 12 per cent. Beeswax, which is free in the British territory, is charged an export duty of 2 per cent. in German East Africa. Woods are charged 5 per cent. in the British, 10 in the German territory. For the export of live stock the German regulation contains a detailed tariff, whilst in British East Africa only horses, camels, and donkeys are charged an export duty.

Another important matter, in which an international agreement applies equally to the two Governments, is the treatment of natives. Both are bound, under the Act of Brussels, to take effective steps for the suppression of the slave-trade and the protection of the natives; and we have already seen that the obligations which the British Government had undertaken under this Act were used as an argument to obtain the capital for the construction of the Uganda Railway granted by Parliament.

The general provisions of the Act may be

supposed to be known. The signatory Powers promised to construct roads, found stations, control the shipping of native dhows, the trade in fire-arms and ammunition, and to limit the import and sale of alcoholic liquors. In consequence, regulations were issued for the suppression of the slave-trade which may already be said to have disappeared altogether in the German and British Protectorates; and in the course of time the whole institution of slavery will have received its death-blow.

At the time when Germany and England acquired their East African possessions the whole economic life was based on slavery, and it would have been suicidal if for philanthropic reasons the sudden abolition of that institution had been proclaimed. There would have been no labourers on the plantations, no sailors for the dhows, and it would have been difficult to get house-servants and porters. Besides, detestable as the slave-trade is with all its cruelties, slavery in itself is harmless in the form in which it exists in East Africa. The slave is a ✓ part of his master's household, who gives him board and lodging, and maintains him in times of illness and in his old age. The institution is so interwoven with the habits and customs of the country, that it is not felt as a degradation by the native, who mostly is best off when he is under a certain



SLAVE CARAVAN, ON THE WAY FROM THE INTERIOR TO THE COAST.

UNIT OF
CALIFORNIA

obligation to work. The work which a master expects from his servant is generally so little that domestic servants at home appear much greater slaves than the natives who bear this name. Acts of cruelty were infrequent, even in Arab times, because it was in the master's own interest to treat his people well ; under European régime he is severely punished whenever he comes under the notice of the authorities. A slave-holder who has been committed for ill-treatment of a slave has to set him free in German territory as well as in British.

Notwithstanding, slavery is an evil which is not tolerable under Christian administration, and so the Governments had at least to soften its asperity, though they could not eradicate it, for economic reasons.

It has therefore been ordained in German East Africa that every slave has the right to purchase his freedom at a just and reasonable price, which is fixed by the local authorities. They have also to give their permission, if a master wishes to sell his slaves to another owner, and this is only possible if the slave himself agrees to it, care being taken that members of the same family are not separated one from another by these transfers. Finally, according to an ordinance dated December 24, 1904, all

children of domestic slaves, born after December 31, 1905, are free in German East Africa.

In the British possessions slavery has been recognized as a legal status only on the coast-belt belonging to the Sultan of Zanzibar, who in a decree of the 15th El Haj, 1307 (August 1, 1890), interdicted all future "exchange, sale, or purchase of slaves, domestic or otherwise." Children of slaves born since 1890 were declared free.

So, in British and in German territory, slavery seemed to be condemned to a natural death; but in home circles in England, influenced by a wrong humanity, this seemed still insufficient. It was declared shameful that in a dependency of the United Kingdom this institution should still be admitted in even a mild form. And so quite suddenly, October 1, 1907 was fixed as the date for the total abolition of slavery; a sum of £40,000 was voted by Parliament to compensate slave-owners; and it was ordained that no claims referring to slavery were to be entertained after the end of 1911. Money could hardly ever have been spent for a more unwise purpose. The slaves did not wish to be freed, and the masters did not like to part with their slaves. The money had to be pressed upon them; and the freed slaves, who by-and-by learned that they did not need to work if they did not like

it, became idlers and criminals; the patriarchal ties which connected them with their masters were severed; in cases of disease they received no assistance; the number of marriages, and therewith the chance for future native offspring, decreased. The disastrous results on the side of the slave-owners are still more obvious. They lose their old labourers, and find, even if they are willing and able to pay wages, no recruits. The sums which they receive in compensation just help them through the first stage of the calamity, but when these have been dissipated with Oriental indolence, they have not energy enough to adopt a new economic system, and are bound to sink into poverty.

It is to be hoped that our Government will not alter the present status, according to which the last slaves will die out in a few decades. Meantime the tie of slavery is becoming lighter and lighter, and sufficient opportunity is given to the present slaveholders to insure the survival of the fittest. Those Orientals who can justify their existence in a civilized country have meanwhile time enough to become familiar with the changed economic conditions.

In a lecture which the former German Colonial Secretary, Herr Dernburg, gave before the African Society in London in November, 1909,¹ he dis-

¹ *K.B.*, 1909, pp. 1093-1096.

cussed the solidarity of interests which unites all colonizing Powers, and urged the responsibilities which England and Germany had accepted with reference to the natives of their African possessions.

No less an authority than ex-President Roosevelt expressed in a public speech at Nairobi, during his visit to British East Africa in 1909, the opinion that, by raising the black man, who is incompetent to better himself, the colonizer fulfils a demand of righteousness, and in the meantime serves his ultimate self-interest.

The moral education of the natives has been the work of missionary enterprise, which was already active in East Africa before England or Germany had political ambitions there. It is regrettable that the value of the missionary work is frequently under-estimated. It may be admitted that tactless persons, who will be found in every profession, sometimes cause trouble to the administrative officers; and it would perhaps be better if the doctrine of Christian fraternity were less instilled into the natives than the Divine command that "if any would not work, neither should he eat." Still, it would be unfair not to recognize the great part which missionary societies have played, and still play, as pioneers of civilization.

They abound in East Africa, and make, of course,

little distinction whether their field lies in German or British territory. The Evangelical Lutheran Mission of Leipzig has stations in the highlands of British East Africa and on the Kilima Njaro ; the English Church Missionary Society also evangelizes in both Protectorates ; and the Roman Catholic Mission of the Holy Ghost has branches all over East Africa. This means to these societies a continual communion, mutual stimulation, and exchange of experience, and also guarantees that the education of their charges shall proceed more or less along the same lines.

To the colonizer industrial missions are certainly of the greatest importance. The German Neukirch Mission on the Tana has trained some masons, and the Fathers of the Holy Ghost are said to provide good carpenters ; the Anglo-American Africa Inland Mission, with the headquarters at Kijabe, in British East Africa, has won special fame for the industrial training of natives, and their intention to settle on the German part of the Lake Victoria can therefore be welcomed. On the other hand, the Governor of Uganda, in his Annual Report for 1907-8, complains that the missions, which have done excellent work there for the literary education of the population, were, in spite of the high intelligence of the natives, not able to train industrial workmen. A sum of £200, which had been offered in the shape

of bonuses for the production of blacksmiths, masons, carpenters, or wheelwrights, could not be distributed, nor did any mission accept the offer of an equal amount in aid of the establishment of a technical workshop.¹

The whole school management in the two British possessions is in the hands of the missions, whilst in German East Africa from the earliest times Government schools have been established. The first school was opened at Tanga in 1893, and soon came into favour with the natives, after they had realized that no religious propaganda was to be taught. At present every place of some importance has its Government school, and a great number of boys have been brought up in them, who, for small wages, do good service as clerks in every possible branch of the administration and in private businesses. The industrial education has not been neglected either, and the carpenter workshop at Tanga attracts the admiration of all visitors, as does the excellent band which is being trained under the control of the leading schoolmaster. Local bands which try to amuse the citizens of Mombasa and Lamu consist merely of Tanga boys, who have deserted from the original German band.

The need for educating natives to become clerks

¹ Colonial Report, No. 600, p. 20.

and workmen of a higher class is more urgent for the German Government than it would be for a nation which can easily rely for reserves on more developed parts of her Empire. It is quite natural that in the British East African offices Indian clerks are more in evidence than in German East Africa ; their wages, however, are a good deal higher, but the work they do is often not better than that done by natives.

A sound policy demands that labour, as far as obtainable, should be confined to members of one's own nation, and a great outcry arose in the papers when the Darassalam flotilla, in order to save expense, employed Indian artisans in their workshops. Those who argued against this system forgot that every German workman employed in their stead would have cost at least three times as much as an Indian, and would, sooner or later, have succumbed to the climate, if he had tried to do the same hard work. There can be no doubt that the Uganda Railway has a great advantage over us, because they can use at comparatively cheap rates Indian and Eurasian engine-drivers and guards, whilst we have to pay German functionaries who have been trained for this responsible service at home, and have, of course, a higher standard of life than those who have been born and bred in a tropical country.

Apart from the moral education of the natives, the care for their physical welfare is a matter of self-interest to the protecting Power. A common scourge for the German as well as the British Government is the sleeping sickness, which has devastated whole districts on Lake Victoria, and needs continued attention. The disease, which is well known in West Africa, was first noticed in Uganda about April, 1901, and in 1902 a doctor was deputed specially to investigate the infected districts; the report he gave showed that the disease was beyond the power of the Medical Department to deal with. A special commission of experts was despatched by the Royal Society to study it on the spot, and finally, in January, 1903, Colonel Bruce, of the War Office, was sent out with a full staff to make further search into the cause and nature of the disease.¹ Since then it has been proved that the illness is spread by a fly (*Glossina palpalis*) allied to the tsetse, which infects the patient with a trypanosoma, and so causes the disease. It soon spread over to the German part of the Lake, and a special hospital for sleeping sickness had to be opened near Bukoba. In 1905 Professor Koch was sent out on a scientific expe-

¹ General Report on the Uganda Protectorate for the year ending March 31, 1903 (Africa, No. 15).

dition to the Lake, where, together with his British colleagues, he made further inquiries, especially as to the conditions under which the *Glossina palpalis* lived, propagated itself, and transferred the disease. It was found that the bushes round the Lake offered those flies an asylum, and it was therefore decided that they should be cut down everywhere round villages. Professor Koch also found that atoxyl proved a cure, and though it had later to be admitted that the cure was not a permanent and general one, its administration greatly prolonged life in many cases.¹

Finally, the experience which had been gained about the character of the disease led the two Governments to an agreement, which was signed in London on October 27, 1908,² and brought into effect on the first day of 1909. With a view to the more effectual combating of the disease, the respective Governments promised one another to forbid natives who might be suffering from the disease to pass into each other's territory; to establish segregation camps at adjacent points on either side of the common boundary for the detention of sick natives; to prevent natives from crossing

¹ Quarterly Report on the Progress of Segregation Camps and Medical Treatment of Sleeping Sickness in Uganda for the Quarter December 1, 1902, to February 29, 1903.

² K.B., 1908, pp. 1197-1199.

into areas of the other Power which have been declared infected ; to notify without delay the areas so declared infected ; and to destroy all those migratory animals which may be reasonably suspected of being a source of aliment to the *Glossina palpalis*. And the officers in charge of concentration camps were to be recommended to visit each other for the purpose of discussing their experiences of the disease.

In consequence several segregation camps have been established in Uganda and British and German East Africa, and at present the disease has already lost much of its terror : the death rate, for instance, in the kingdom of Uganda, having decreased from 8,003 in 1905 to 1,723 in 1908.

Owing to their clothes and more careful habits of life, Europeans are less exposed to the attacks of the fly than natives. Since 1906 no European cases have been reported in Uganda. In German territory during recent years some Europeans were infected, but have got much better under medical treatment.

Another disease which occasionally alarms the country is the plague, which is endemic near Lake Victoria, its principal focus appearing to be the railway terminus at Kisumu. A somewhat serious outbreak occurred at the beginning of 1905. Since 1908 some cases have been reported every year ;

occasionally Nairobi and other places on the railway have been infected. On the German side, in 1906, Muansa suffered for a short time from the disease. The outbreaks always cause quarantine measures, and more or less handicap the traffic on the Lake. It seems that, owing to lack of means, the British Government is not in a position to take effective steps against the evil. The campaign against rats could be waged with more energy—prices should be given for each rat killed; and apparently the microscopic examination cannot be done in a sufficiently thorough manner. The coast has been spared this disease with the exception of the Zanzibar epidemic in 1905, and some cases which broke out in Daressalam and Kilwa, but did hardly any harm to the general trade.

Smallpox used to be quite a common disease all over East Africa before it was taken under European administration. Latterly, it has been successfully combated by systematic vaccination, the methodical way in which the German medical officers are vaccinating whole tribes having done much to stamp out the disease. It still breaks out occasionally, here and there, however. Last year, for instance, the shipping service on Lake Victoria suffered for some time by the outbreak of a fresh epidemic near Muansa.

While these diseases have in general more effect on the natives, malaria and other tropical fevers cause special trouble to the Europeans who settle in the country. Much has been done by science to study their character and discover the proper way to fight against them ; and high praise is due to our famous bacteriologist, the lately deceased Professor Koch, whose merits are recognized by the British nation not less than by his own compatriots.

To provide relief to those who are suffering under the influence of the tropical climate, the German Government opened, in 1905, a comfortable sanatorium in the Usambara Hills, which is also occasionally made use of by residents of British East Africa.

The economic prosperity of a young colony depends a good deal on the fact that peace is being kept in the country. It cannot be expected that native tribes should accept without reluctance the blessings of civilization for which they have to sacrifice many of their inherited customs and liberties. So, even to the wisest Governments, it will happen that during the first years of their administration troubles break out amongst their protégés. Uganda was disturbed by serious rebellions in 1892 and 1897, and the German East African revolt of 1905 is still fresh in our memory. In British East

Africa troubles with the Somalis in the north, and various risings of the warlike tribes in the highlands, made military expeditions necessary. The measures which the one Power takes to overcome the rebellions will always have their effect on the neighbouring territory. Weakness shown by the one Power would damage also the prestige of its neighbour, whilst the prompt overthrow of the rebels will in general increase the authority of the European race.

It must not be forgotten that there is a good deal of tribal community between the natives of the neighbouring Protectorates. A general language, the Swahili, is understood in nearly every part of East Africa; the coast population, mostly Mohammedans, are connected by ties of religion; and even if it is admitted that Islam on the east coast is anything but fanatic, signs of a pan-Islamic agitation were noticed only two years ago, and it is certain that a religious rising in one part of East Africa would soon spread all over the country.

In the interior the bellicose Masai tribe lives on both sides of the boundary. Disturbances on the English side would certainly affect the German part, and *vice versa*; and so the joint control and the immediate communication of any signs of possible unrest are to the interests of either Power.

When, in 1904, the Chief of the station at Moschi was afraid that a general rising of the Masais was imminent on Kilima Njaro, he could be calmed by the information that the conduct of the tribe on the English side of the boundary did not justify his fears. In his lecture in London, Herr Dernburg mentioned that some time ago the Governor of British East Africa suggested to the German authorities that regular information about the movements of the natives in the neighbouring districts should be exchanged.

In this connection, it may be mentioned that for the suppression of the German East African rebellion in 1905, the existence of the Uganda Railway proved also of great assistance. When riots broke out near Bukoba and Muansa, a naval detachment used this quick conveyance, and so, in a very short time, were enabled to restore order.

The easy life which Nature grants to the aborigines of the Tropics could not develop in them a great instinct for hard working. This is an argument which justifies in some way the institution of slavery, and even serious politicians have recommended a system of compulsory labour in the colonies. But apart from the ethical arguments which controvert this, the carrying out of such a system would be very difficult for political reasons,

and so the best way of accustoming the natives to regular work is to increase their economic needs. The more they appreciate the articles from overseas—clothing and trinkets—the more they feel inclined to earn money. Another expedient to develop in them the desire for regular labour is the introduction of a general census. It is only natural that for all advantages which natives derive from the establishment of European rule they should contribute in some way to the expenses of the Power which protects them.

In German East Africa, as well as in the British Protectorates, the system of hut-tax has first been adopted. In German East Africa taxes have been collected since April 1, 1898; British East Africa and Uganda followed the example somewhat later. The annual impost in German East Africa and British East Africa is Rs. 3 per hut, which cannot be considered excessive; and in Uganda as much as Rs. 5 is levied in the more developed provinces. The German Hut-tax Regulations point out in the first paragraph that the tax should only be levied "as far as the peaceful influence of the administration reaches." Similar precautions were taken in the British Protectorates to avoid trouble which might be caused among the natives on account of the new impost. To facilitate the collection, it was

also provided that the tax could be paid in kind, or that, in lieu of paying money, one could work for the Government during a certain time. In British East Africa a labour period of one month is regarded as equal to a tax of Rs. 3.

The hut-tax was in the earliest times thought to be the best system of taxation, because the number of the existing huts gave the surest base of control ; but, on the other hand, it had its drawbacks, because it charged the domiciled people, whilst a great number of workmen, especially most of the porters, escaped free. A disinclination to create new huts was soon remarked, and it was often found that several families shared one hut in order to avoid the taxation.

So, with the extension of administrative influence, the somewhat unjust hut-tax system has been augmented by a subsidiary poll-tax. Adult male natives, who are not liable to pay hut-tax, are charged in British East Africa a poll-tax of a like amount. In German East Africa a Regulation of 1905 provides the Government with the same alternative.¹ In Uganda the Government is altogether abandoning the hut-tax in favour of the poll-tax, and it is very likely that the German Government will soon follow suit.

¹ "Landesgesetzgebung," Nachtrag III., p. 69.

Apart from the good effect which a regular census has in accustoming the natives to work, it is a favourable source of revenue to the Governments.

The labour question is a most important factor in tropical countries where plantations are started. The white man is not able to do manual work in an unaccustomed climate, and must rely for this on the assistance of the natives. The difficulty was at once felt when the first plantations were established in Usambara. In 1891 some hundred labourers were imported from China and Java, at considerable expense. Their wages were high, too, and they suffered much from the climate. The experiment was not repeated, but more and more indigenous labourers were employed, the assiduous Wanwamwesi tribe being particularly induced to take up regular work. In 1895 the manager of the plantation at Kikogwe, near Pangani, settled 300 families there.¹ The home of the Wayamwesi is the district round Tabora, but having been used as caravan porters since the Arab times, they are spread all over the land. They remain wherever they find a living, but sooner or later always return to their home country. Many of them wandered over to British East Africa, where they are much liked as workmen on the railway, as

¹ *K.B.*, 1895, p. 480.

porters for the numerous "safaris," and as labourers in the plantations. There is a settlement of about a thousand of them near Mombasa, and they are keeping in touch with the German Consulate there. With other natives of the German colony living at Mombasa, they have even elected a Chief, who is a sort of agent in all the relations with the Consulate, and the system has proved quite successful.

The Consulate tries to lead them back to German East Africa whenever they are needed. During the rebellion of 1905 hundreds of them were recruited at Mombasa to serve as soldiers or porters. The recruiting of labourers for service abroad offers great difficulties in British East Africa, and depends on the permission of the Government, which, as a fact, is never given, because the country needs the few labourers it has for its own use. Still, natives of German East Africa cannot be forbidden to return to their home-country, and so, whenever a labour-agent turns up, the would-be labourers appear in the Consulate and declare that they wish to go to Tanga, or whatever place it may be, and before they are shipped the local authorities are given a chance to examine them, and find out whether they are really German subjects.

There are hardly any tribes in British East Africa who have an equal instinct for regular work, and so the labour question became urgent at the very moment when plantations were started there. At a meeting in the beginning of 1908 the planters pressed the Government hard to get a regular supply of indentured labourers from India. The Government promised to make immediate arrangement for this, in case the circumstances should prove that the local supply was not sufficient ; but up to the present time no importation of labourers has been found necessary. This shows that the fears of the planters were exaggerated, as they were in German East Africa. There the colonists declared, in 1906, that there would be in the following years an additional demand for 20,000 labourers, and that the country itself would not be able to supply them. The increase has been much higher than the planters anticipated ; there were during last year nearly 70,000 men working on the railways and on plantations, and still it was not necessary to import labourers from elsewhere.

Though the planters will not fully admit it, the importance of the labour question is realized by the respective Governments of the German and British Protectorates, but they have to take the opinions of both parties, and not only the interests of the

planters, but those of the natives as well, have to be regarded. So, first of all, in British East Africa an ordinance was issued in 1906 to regulate the relations between masters and servants. Contracts for a longer period than one month had to be in writing, and if any party was unable to read, had to be concluded before a magistrate. Inducing natives to proceed beyond the Protectorate for employment was interdicted, and breaches of contract were declared punishable by law.

In the course of time friction arose between the Government and the planters, and it came even to an open riot at Nairobi when certain rules were published, under which the Government promised to procure labour for the colonists.

After prolonged negotiations with the interested parties, new principles were laid down in 1908, in accordance with which the Government declared its willingness to endeavour to recruit labour, the principal items being that the employer had to erect huts for the use of the employees, to provide them with suitable food, or a daily allowance in lieu thereof, as directed by the local authorities, to maintain a sufficient supply of cooking utensils, to arrange for proper water-supply, to supply the people, where it was found necessary, with a blanket, and so on.¹

¹ *East African Standard*, April 11, 1908.

The German Government followed the proceedings in British East Africa with interest. The Colonial Secretary, Herr Dernburg, who, on a tour of information, visited East Africa in 1907, used this occasion to study the British policy with regard to native affairs in British East Africa, and the result was the issuing of two regulations, in February, 1909, concerning the recruiting of labourers and their legal position. The latter is mainly based on the principles adopted by the British Government in 1908 ; the former puts recruiting under official control, the export of labourers for foreign service without the sanction of the Government being strictly prohibited, and contracts for a longer period than seven calendar months, or 180 actual working days, being forbidden.¹

A new British ordinance of March 21, 1910, to regulate the relations between employers and natives, and to control the recruiting and engagement of natives, is very similar to the German regulations ; but the period for which contracts can be made binding is fixed at two years.²

In British East Africa a Commissioner for Native Affairs has been appointed, who is the competent

¹ *Amtlicher Anzeiger*, No. 6, 27 Februar, 1909.

² *Official Gazette of the East African Protectorate*, No. 250, April 1, 1910.

authority for all questions concerning the legal position of the natives, and to whom all applications for the supply of labourers have to be made. The general impression among the farmers is that this officer regards himself too much as the representative of the natives, and overlooks the interest of the employers.

In German East Africa only lately several—at present four—“Eingeborenen-Kommissare” have been gazetted. The name means the same as Commissioner for Native Affairs, but their business is more localized. They are for a limited district the intermediary between employers and labourers, and their chief object is to settle differences between both parties. There have also been complaints that they are inclined to decide disputes rather in favour of the natives than of the employers, but as a whole this institution appears to work well.

One complaint which farmers may raise against the ordinance, which is probably as perfect as a similar institution can be in a new country, is that its regulations can easily be enforced against them, but not against their employees, who withdraw from their responsibilities. If a native disappears, it is very difficult to trace him. A farmer on the British coast, who is known to treat his employees well, complains in a pamphlet which he wrote on the

subject that from June, 1908, to end of February, 1909, 260 deserted out of a total of 720 men engaged. They were all registered according to law, and the authorities did not succeed in apprehending a single one.¹

So the farmer loses the premium which he has paid for the recruiting, and, even if the man is found, he will, in the most cases, not be able to pay to the farmer a sufficient compensation, and the imprisonment to which he might be sentenced is not felt by him as a stain upon his honour.

To avoid desertions farmers have suggested for a long time that a general pass system should be adopted. It would certainly check the evil, but its enactment would be very complicated, and cost enormous sums. It will be possible at a later date, when the administration has penetrated more into the whole country.

In Uganda the labour question has offered no difficulties so far, because there are no plantations of importance, and probably none will be established in the near future. A high percentage of the natives there are absorbed in the caravan service as porters, and the increasing construction of roads will make them free for other work. The same can be said about German East Africa, where the building

¹ Anderson, "Native Labour in British East Africa."

of railways at present keeps thousands of labourers busy, who later on can be used on plantations. Besides, it must not be forgotten that new railways open new districts, some of them densely populated, where labourers can be recruited, and at the present time are already being recruited.

Finally, it may be pointed out that a great deal depends on the employer himself whether he is able to get a sufficient stock of labourers or not. A farmer who is known to treat his employees well will always have a regular influx, whilst a man who has once got a reputation for injustice or cruelty will have permanent difficulties. And here I cannot help stating that the general impression amongst natives is, that their treatment is not so good in German East Africa as in British territory. Often when I asked Wanyamwesi why they did not remain in their own country instead of living in British East Africa, I heard the reply that they are too severely treated in German East Africa. This is in general certainly not correct, but it is true that the way in which the natives are dealt with is a good deal stricter in German East Africa than in the British colony, and the farmers would be the last to blame our Government for it. Another advantage which German territory offers from the farmers' point of view is that justice is more easily

and speedily obtainable there than in the British colony, where a good many formalities have to be gone through before a native gets his well-deserved punishment. The formless administrative jurisdiction which is in use in German East Africa works excellently, and guarantees complete justice. Further, corporal punishment, which is by far more effective than fines and imprisonment, is adopted more frequently under German jurisdiction than it is by the British authorities.

To develop amongst the natives the instinct for economy, a savings bank was instituted in Dares-salam, under the control of the *Bezirksamt* (district office) there, but experience teaches that it is used less by natives than by Europeans. A similar institution has been started in British East Africa and Uganda under the administration of the General Post Office. The interest granted is, in German East Africa, $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; whilst in the British territories only $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is given, at present.

Speaking about banks, I may mention here that, with regard to the coinage, a certain uniformity, to which I have referred already on pp. 11-12, exists between the respective countries. Though the rupees of the one Power are not accepted in the territory of the other Power, their nearly equal

value facilitates the control of the market in the respective territories. Further, some years ago a reformation of the coinage was undertaken, and the centesimal division accepted in both territories. The experiments which the British Government made at this time with the small coinage gave some useful hints to the German Government, and the bad results which were obtained in British East Africa with the first issue of aluminium coins caused the German Government to stick to the copper coinage with which the natives were familiar.

Other administrative measures which may call for comparison—such as the creation of legislative councils and of municipalities—have a more political character, and are therefore beyond the scope of the present chapter.

CHAPTER IV

CULTIVATION IN THE TROPICAL BELT

PROCEEDING now to deal with the unity of interests as regards the economic produce of the respective Protectorates, I may recall my remarks on page 26 by saying that German East Africa is ahead of British East Africa by a decade in the development of the tropical belt.

German East Africa was started as a plantation colony; the articles which proved successful were coffee, rubber, sisal, and cotton. The experiments which were made in Usambara with coffee have already been alluded to. In 1892 the Deutschostafrikanische Gesellschaft had planted 115,000 trees,¹ and in 1896 800,000 trees were reported in the eastern Usambara (Handei).² The first experiences were very favourable; climate and soil seemed suitable. The prices realized per $\frac{1}{2}$ kg. averaged

¹ *K.B.*, 1893, p. 318.

² Die aus den deutschen Kolonien exportierten Produkte etc., Beilage zum deutschen Kolonialblatt 15 Mai 1896.

from 90 pfennig to about 1 mark. But soon came counter-strokes. In 1895 the *Hemileia vastatrix* made its appearance and, later, followed the heavy falls in price on the home market; the labour question caused difficulties; the soil did not appear to fulfil its promises, and at present the general impression prevails that the establishment of coffee plantations in Usambara is unremunerative. The old plantations carry on the production, but refrain from further development. The export via Tanga amounted in 1903 to 336 tons, and rose until 1905 to 400 tons, to which figure it fell again in 1907, after a sudden increase to 497 in 1906. In 1908 the high figure of 650 tons, at a value of 799,000 marks, was reached; but for 1909 a remarkable decrease is reported.

In proportion as the coffee cultivation is being abandoned in Usambara, its cultivation increases near the Kilima Njaro. The soil there seems more favourable, the labourers are by far cheaper, and the whole running of the farm is less expensive, because in Usambara most of the plantations belong to large companies with a great administrative staff, while on the Kilima Njaro smaller farmers—mostly Italians and Greeks, with no high standard of life—do the business. The export from the Moschi district shows the following figures:

Year.	Tons.	Value in Marks.
1904	0.025	19
1905	5	5,369
1906	28	21,380
1907	41	31,745
1908	72	49,796
1909	1	47,000
1910 (January till July) ...	1	10,071

And it must still be noted that these figures include only the export via Mombasa. The coffee which goes down the Usambara Railway to Tanga represents at least 20 per cent. of the total produce of the district, and it is to be expected that the impending completion of this line will cause a further extension of its cultivation.

The bad experiences which German companies suffered with coffee on the coast-belt did not encourage their British neighbours to make similar experiments, but the conditions under which the article is grown on the Kilima Njaro are very similar to those in some parts of the British highlands. Around Nairobi some French colonists are cultivating it, after the start had been made by a station of the Fathers of the Holy Ghost. The missionaries of this society had obtained their experience in the German Uluguru Mountains, where coffee had been grown by them, for local

consumption only, for more than twenty years.¹ Labour near Nairobi is just as cheap as on the Kilima Njaro, and water to move the engines is plentiful. The variety cultivated in the highlands is Arabian, which succeeds best in the altitudes of tropical countries. When last year I visited one of the more important coffee plantations near Nairobi, the manager had just gone to the Kilima Njaro on a tour of inspection.

The production of coffee in British East Africa represents so far only a small figure; its export was 630 cwt., at a value of £1,068, in 1909. Round Lake Victoria, especially in Uganda and in the hinterland of Bukoba, the natives are cultivating coffee on indigenous trees, which is also exported, and successful efforts are being made, particularly by the German Government, to improve its quality by teaching the natives the right method of collecting the beans.

Rubber has always been indigenous to the African mainland as a creeper called *Landophia*. In Uganda a tree, the *Funtumia elastica*, is found. The article, collected by natives, has for a long time formed a valuable item of the export statistics. The German and British Governments were jointly interested that the produce of their

¹ K.B., 1894, p. 145.

CULTIVATION IN THE TROPICAL BELT 101

possessions should maintain a good name on the home market; and so we find that even in early years ordinances were issued in German East Africa as well as in Zanzibar, and in British East Africa, against the adulteration of country produce. As far as rubber is concerned, it has been ordained by both Powers that the collection and sale of root-rubber, and the extraction of rubber from boiled bark, are prohibited, and every ball of rubber must be cut through the centre to show that no foreign or inferior substance is admixed.

The abundance of wild rubber in the country justified the opinion that its cultivation on plantations would also be successful, and experiments which were made in German East Africa since 1898 proved that the *Manihot Glaziovii* (Ceara rubber) did well on the east coast. The first export of plantation rubber, in 1907, was estimated to amount to 50 tons; since 1908 separate statistics have been kept for the plantation produce, and the figures are 87 tons in 1908, and 163 during the last year.

British farmers have followed the German example since 1906; but their plantations have not yet reached the bearing stage, though next year exports will be possible. They could utilize the experience of their German neighbours, and also found it easier to acquire the necessary seeds. But the soil seems

not quite so favourable on the British coast as in German East Africa.

The English market takes a great interest in rubber cultivation; and in 1908 an exhibition was held in London, where examples, grown in all parts of the British Empire, were shown.¹

The sudden rise of the rubber prices in 1910 produced a sort of fever among English business men; the high dividends which were paid to rubber shareholders in Ceylon and in the Straits Settlements caused the foundation of numerous new companies in London, which tried to acquire plantations wherever they could. So many of the German East African plantations came into English hands, and those who had started them realized high prices, which enabled them at once to establish new plantations. The fear has been expressed in some German quarters that the rubber of the colony would become an object of English speculation, and that an English ring might be formed to dictate the prices of the article. This fear is hardly justified, in view of the fact that most of our rubber is still the produce of wild-growing vines, and that new plantations are constantly being started by German enterprise. On the contrary, we should be glad if our English neighbours would begin to show some

¹ Another exhibition was held in 1911.

interest in our colony, and thereby prove its value; and we can only rejoice that for some years an English company has been doing plantation work on the Kilima Njaro. We should learn from our neighbours to be grateful to every pioneer who enters our country with sufficient means to do something for its development, be he British, Greek, Italian, or of whatever nationality.

The sisal cultivation was started in German East Africa under very bad auspices. Of 1,000 plants imported from Florida in 1893, only 6 per cent. arrived in a state fit to be planted.¹ At present about twenty millions of plants are found in the various plantations of German East Africa. The climate seems to suit the sisal better than its old home in the Western Hemisphere. While it there needs from five to eight years to arrive at maturity, on the East African coast it matures in less than four years, and propagates longer leaves, which give finer fibre.² The yield approximates to 2½ lb. per annum.

The introduction of the sisal cultivation was benefited, at the beginning of this century, by a large rise of the prices in the world's markets, caused by the failure of the general production

¹ *K.B.*, 1896, p. 445.

² See Playna, "East Africa," pp. 192-193.

owing to political troubles in the West Indies. So a German company which, at the time of its foundation, had based its calculations on an expected price of £15 per ton, realized for its first crop, in 1903, £40, and even £45, per ton.¹ Since then the prices have fluctuated a good deal, but have always been high enough to justify the running of sisal plantations as a paying undertaking. The article has a good future, as its demand on the world market is from year to year increasing.

Of course, a sisal planter needs a good deal of money, as the machines are expensive, and the more the plantation expands the larger profits there are. To bring the plants to the factory many companies use tramways.

The export from German East Africa rose from 1,000 tons in 1904 to 2,800 tons in 1907, and 4,057 tons in 1908.

In British East Africa the first sisals were planted in 1902, as ornamental borders in the grounds of the Government House at Mombasa, the suckers having been brought over from the German colony. They have since grown to an extraordinary size and multiplied exceedingly.

Commercial sisal-planting was only begun in 1907, after the news had come that the German East

¹ *K.B.*, 1903, p. 205.

African produce had been sold for 5½d. per pound on the American market. A general fever to plant sisal arose, but the German Government poured water on this by placing a heavy prohibitive export duty on the produce of their colony. Under an Act of November, 1907, for each exported sucker 25 cents, for each bulbil 10 cents, have to be paid. The Government had been forced to adopt this measure by the farmers, who would not lose the advantage which lay on their side as a result of their earlier operations; but it is doubtful whether it would not have been wiser for them to make some money out of selling their bulbils and suckers at high prices to their British neighbours. The produce of East Africa represents such a small item on the general market that for many years to come there is not much fear that it will have much effect on the prices. Besides, the development of the sisal production could only be stopped for a short time, but not hindered altogether. The result was, apart from a good deal of ill-feeling on the side of the British Government, that farmers had to order their plants from more remote countries, especially from Ceylon, and paid prices somewhat higher than those in German East Africa.

There are now a number of sisal plantations on the British East African coast, near Mombasa and

Malindi, the first of which will begin to be cut and exported in the course of next year. The manager has often visited on tours of inspection the German sisal plantations, and it is even to be hoped that he orders his machines from a German firm which, residing at Tanga, has lately opened a branch at Mombasa.

In the first years all machinery used for sisal production came from England and America, but for some years the German industry has made successful efforts to construct machines for the needs of the colonies.

The fibre which British East Africa has hitherto produced is obtained from the wild-growing *Sansevieria Ehrenbergii*. Two companies have concessions near Voi and farther inland for its manufacturing. Experiments with ramie, made at Nairobi, were not successful.

A part of the British export originates from Uganda and the German Schirati district. It is taken from the leaves of *Sansevieria Guineensis* by the manual labour of natives. Schirati exported, according to German statistics in 1907, 27 tons at a value of £623; in 1908 no export is recorded, and so it seems that the article has been given up in favour of some other produce.

A solidarity of interests doubtless exists between

Germany and England with regard to the cultivation of cotton in their respective colonies.

The American War of Secession in the sixties of the past century caused a great decrease in the production of cotton, and latterly the production of this article has not kept pace with the needs of the world market.¹ Since 1889 the consumption of America has risen by 60 per cent., whilst production has sunk by about 12 per cent. compared with the average of the last ten years, a fact which led to wild speculations, with the result that the prices were raised by more than 50 per cent. There was every reason to fear that the whole European textile industry would fall under the tyranny of an American trust, and therefore the mill-owners of the various European nations started to take joint steps to open new fields for the cultivation of this important product. In German colonies the Kolonialwirtschaftliches Komitee, in British territories the British Cotton Growing Association, have made successful efforts in this direction. In May, 1904, an international congress of cotton manufacturers accepted the necessity of a joint struggle for the cultivation of cotton.

Ever since early times the cotton plant has been

¹ Kolonialwirtschaftliches Komitee. Bericht II. Deutsch-koloniale Baumwollunternehmungen, 1902-3, pp. 3, 6, 7.

indigenous in East Africa. In the Lindi district it has been known for centuries, its existence in Uganda being reported in the first years of British occupation.¹ This fact suggested that methodical cultivation might prove successful in this part of the world. The first experiments in German East Africa were made at Kikogwe on the Pangani River, where the climate and ground were found exceedingly suitable. In 1891 and 1892, 4,600 kg. Texas (long staple) and 300 kg. Sea Island were exported. Twenty hundredweights of seed were provided free of cost to Arab farmers, and a price of 3 pice ($\frac{1}{4}$ d.) was guaranteed for a pound unginned.² Soon a ginning factory was erected at that place, and in 1897 we find that the produce of Kikogwe was valued as "middling Texas good colour," its staple being better than "even running middling Texas." The only fault was some fly in it. The price it fetched on the home market was $31\frac{1}{2}$ pfennig per pound, only $\frac{1}{2}$ pfennig less than best Texas. Successful experiments were also made near Tanga, Mikindani, and Kilwa. At the latter place an agriculturist was appointed by the K.W.K. to teach the natives the cultivation of the article. But soon the plants began to suffer under various pests. Locusts, especially in 1894, did a deal of damage, and

¹ *K.B.*, 1890, p. 349.

² *Ibid.*, 1893, p. 154.

a general fall in prices, brought about by temporary overproduction, made the cultivation unprofitable. So several plantations gave the article up, in spite of all assistance guaranteed to them. The Deutsche Ostafrika Linie promised to carry the article free of charge, and premiums were granted by the K.W.K. for every hectar planted with cotton during a certain period. From 1904 to 1906 no progress was made, the export remaining all those years on a scale of 189 tons. A new impetus was given in 1907, in which year 231 tons were shipped. The figure for 1908 was 270 tons, and has in the last year considerably increased, but the actual statistics are not at my disposal.

The experiments in German East Africa were followed with great concern in the interested British quarters. In December, 1902, the Chamber of Commerce at Manchester declared a sample grown in that colony to be equal to the best Egyptian produce,¹ and in the next year, in a report about the general market of the cotton industry, the Vice-President of the B.C.G.A. referred to the German successes,² in order to encourage the production of the article in British East Africa and Uganda.

The start was made in Uganda, where the intelli-

¹ *K.B.*, 1903, p. 129.

² *Ibid.*, 1904, p. 372.

gence of the natives gave early hope of success.¹ A company was formed to take over the industrial and commercial side of the work, which was first confined to the central province and the areas near Kampala and Entebbe. The circle soon widened, and so the production which began, in 1905, with 12,187 lb., increased gradually to 1,702,694 lb., at a value of £35,292, and Uganda to-day is still only on the threshold of its possibilities. There is hardly a district in the country not fit for the cultivation of the staple, and it is only a question of construction of roads to get the cotton plant grown even at the most remote places.

The type grown in Uganda is an acclimatized variety of American long-stapled upland, known as "black rattler."

In British East Africa the cotton cultivation is more localized. Round Lake Victoria the Kavirondos, a diligent tribe, produce an article similar to that in Uganda, while along the coast varieties equal in value to the best Egyptian can be grown, the "Abassi" type being the favourite. Jubaland and the district of Malindi have been found especially suitable for the staple; on the Sabaki River, north of Malindi, an English company

¹ Leggett, "Cotton - growing in British East Africa and Uganda." See Playne, "East Africa," pp. 381-384.



ENTER.

TO THE
ABSTRACT

has planted a large area with cotton. But the task of getting the natives interested in the new article has so far been not very successful. They prefer to stick to their accustomed crops. So the results in British East Africa are not in any way equal to those in Uganda, owing, in a certain measure, to the drought and disease from which the land has suffered.

The export rose from 28,880 lb. in 1905, to 251,328 lb. in 1909.

The measures which were taken in the German and British territories to make the cotton production popular are practically similar. The K.W.K. as well as the C.G.A. distribute free seed amongst the natives, and assure them of a good price and a ready market. In the first years in German East Africa the natives in the south had an unfortunate experience when, under pressure of the Government, they had started cotton-planting, but, on account of the sudden fall in price of the staple of the home market, realized only a very small, if any, profit out of their crops. They could not, of course, understand the fluctuations of the home market, and thought they were cheated by the authorities.

To avoid similar disappointments, a minimum price is being fixed in advance for a certain time, the K.W.K. in German East Africa, for instance, having guaranteed to buy any quantity for a price

of 30 to 40 cents per pound ginned;¹ whilst in British territory the C.G.A. has guaranteed, since the beginning of their work, a minimum of 6 cents. The system of advancing cash on the expected crops is, owing to the native character, somewhat dangerous, as it inclines the people to be idle, and they often spend the money without fulfilling the conditions under which they receive the loans.

The respective Governments have issued regulations in order to secure good quality in the cotton grown in their countries. Thus, by an Act dated August 4, 1904, the German Government prohibited the import of all seed from America, and prescribed that all other seeds could only be imported via Tanga, after previously having been officially examined and found free from boll-weevil and other dangerous pests. Plantations in which the boll-weevil or other dangerous insects are found must if ordered by the police, be destroyed by fire, the parts of the plants above ground being destroyed in any case after the crop.²

The British Government issued, in 1908 and

¹ "Deutschschrift über die Entwicklung der Schutzgebiete," etc., in 1908-9, p. 27.

² A new regulation, dated July 30, 1910, has brought some modification. American seed is admitted, if grown in Nyassaland or Uganda; and, in addition to Tanga, some other ports are admitted as places for entry.

1909 respectively, ordinances which entitled the Governors of British East Africa and Uganda to "make rules for maintaining or improving the quality of cotton in the Protectorates, or to be exported from the Protectorates, either in reference to the distribution and use of seed, or to the inspection of seed, crops, cotton unginned or ginned, or ginneries, or factories."¹ In consequence of this, it has been ordained in the Protectorates that "all cotton plants shall be destroyed after the first season's crop has been picked therefrom, and on no account shall they be allowed to remain for a second season, or for more than one year, in the ground."

In Uganda no cotton-seed can be used which has been obtained from other sources than the Government; and for the purchase of cotton, unless made by natives, a licence is necessary in Uganda. All cotton purchased by a licensee may at all reasonable times be inspected by Government officers, and information has to be given as to the place where, and the person by whom, such cotton was grown, or bought, or ginned.²

All cotton hand-gins must be registered in Uganda, and all seed obtained from them must be

¹ East Africa Protectorate Ordinances and Regulations, vol. x., p. 13.

² *Official Gazette for Uganda*, 1910, p. 182.

destroyed, unless proof can be given that it is not destined for growing purposes.¹

Those measures may seem necessary in a country where the article depends mainly on the native cultivation. In German East Africa, where large companies are interested in the produce, the Government, on the contrary, favours the production of good cotton-seed in its own country. A publication of the Imperial Governor, dated February 2, 1909, points out that, in 1908, 3,000 cwt. of Egyptian seed, at a value of Rs. 24,000, had been imported by the K.W.K., and considerable quantities besides by private companies, and suggests that under the control of experts of the K.W.K., or the Biologisch - Landwirtschaftliches Institut at Amani, the plantations of the colony should produce proper seed. It was suggested that to all plantations which, in the view of experts, seemed able to produce a proper seed, the K.W.K. should guarantee a price of 7 marks per cwt., in bags, free factory. With such a price promised by the K.W.K., it would be more profitable to farmers in German East Africa to sell the seed locally than to send it to Europe for oil produce.

In accordance with this publication, the K.W.K. have declared lately that they are prepared to make

¹ *Official Gazette for Uganda*, 1910, p. 2.

contracts with planters about providing seed; for the present year they have promised a price of 8 marks for 50 kg.

The supplying of seed to natives has been regulated by an order of September 15, 1910, prescribing that seed shall be granted to them by the local authorities or persons especially appointed by the Governor.

In British East Africa so far no restrictions have been made as to the seed to be supplied. It is controlled only at the time of the import, if it is free of pests.

The K.W.K. and the C.G.A. have been accustomed to exchange mutual experiences in cotton cultivation; they keep up a regular correspondence, and assist one another whenever the occasion arises. At the present time German East Africa is probably ahead of the neighbouring British Protectorate, so far as the large farming is concerned, and in this line seems also to have better chances for the future. But as regards native cultivation, Uganda beats it easily, and there is every probability that the German colony can learn a good deal from the experience of its British neighbours, especially when the staple begins to get still more popular round Lake Victoria, where the natives are in many ways similar to the aborigines of the adjacent British

territory. At the beginning of 1910 a German company, which owns cotton plantations in German East Africa, started a gin factory at Jinja, in Uganda.

Cotton-seed grown in the country represents no little economic value, and there has been, since last year, a regular export of it, and even of oil made out of the seed, especially from Uganda; 1,495 tons of seed, at a value of £8,083, and 3,370 gallons of oil, at a value of £252, were shipped thence to Europe in 1909. British East Africa exported 104 tons of seed, at a value of £522. From German East Africa no such exports have been reported so far.

Where the transport to Europe does not pay, cotton-seed provides good fuel for machines, and has been used for this purpose in Uganda. The German Government, hearing about this, showed an interest in the scheme, and made inquiries through the intermediary of the Consulate of Mombasa.

A product of the East African tropical belt, which represents a high economic value, is copra. Coconuts were grown and cultivated by the Arabs and the more well-to-do Swahilis on the coast. With the abolition of slavery, and the increasing impoverishment of the former slave-owners, a gradual falling-off of the cultivation became noticeable—in

British East Africa still more than in the German colony.

The British Annual Report for 1908-9 complains of a consequent want of care of the trees; and it is a sad fact that thousands of palms have died during the last years owing to an insect pest. There was for a long time an opinion prevalent, especially in Zanzibar, that copra was not a paying produce for Europeans. This may have been justified so long as the plantation-work was mostly done by slaves; but since paid labour has more or less to be employed by the Arabs and Swahilis, it is not quite clear why Europeans should not compete successfully with them. Europeans, too, will be more methodical in weeding, manuring, and fighting insect pests.

In German East Africa, since the early days of first occupation, companies have been engaged in planting cocoa-nuts, and many private persons, too, own larger or smaller plantations near the various coast towns. By the end of 1908 there were, according to the official German report, not less than 570,000 trees of a bearing age on European plantations. On the British coast it is only a few years since the first plantations were started by European planters, and at least three or four years must pass before they can begin to reap their reward.

As a reason for the decrease of the export of copra, it is said that the consumption of the fresh coconuts—the “madafu”—has become more popular. In German East Africa they are much in request in the interior by the labourers on the railways and in plantations. The Mombasa statistics show even a small export to Egypt. The sale of the nuts is often more profitable than the procuring of copra, and so, as year by year new countries in the interior are opened up by the railway, new opportunities are given to the planters, both on the German and British coast.

The development of the tropical belt in British East Africa is handicapped by difficulties which the land question offers there. Natives have numerous claims over unoccupied areas which, under a Land Titles Ordinance of 1908, will be gradually adjudicated. Until this is done, the Crown does not allot any land there, and intending planters have to buy the necessary areas from natives, always running the risk that their titles may not be recognized.

CHAPTER V

FARMING IN THE HIGHLANDS

IN British East Africa, as opposed to German East Africa where there were no railways to open up the healthy highlands, efforts were made soon after the completion of the Uganda Railway to open up the country for European settlement. Early in 1903 a great propaganda was started to attract settlers from South Africa.¹ The promises which were made to immigrants were very optimistic, and when these rushed into the country there was no machinery to help them. It was only in April, 1903, that a chief surveyor was appointed, who had to perform the duties of both surveyor and land officer. His whole staff consisted of two Indian assistants.

In 1906 the land and survey departments were separated, a trigonometrical branch was formed, additional surveyors were added to the industrial

¹ J. A. L. Montgomery, "Land Settlement in British East Africa" (See Playne, "East Africa," p. 308).

branch, and an assistant land officer was appointed. For the general control of both land and survey departments a Commissioner of Lands was appointed.

Though the service now works all right, it suffered a long time from the arrears which had been accumulated during the first three years of immigration. The beginning of the settlement was, anyhow, a great disappointment. Many of the would-be settlers who had come with some capital were impoverished before they got their deeds, on which they might have raised some money. The paradise which they hoped to find appeared as a country with unproved means; many came with insufficient knowledge of agriculture, and wasted their capital on unpractical experiments; even those who had been able agriculturists elsewhere were faced by new conditions, and suffered losses which crippled them.

By the end of 1908 nearly 4,000 square miles had been given out in land grants, nearly half of which consisted of smaller grants, from homestead freeholds of 640 acres to leases of from 5,000 to 10,000 acres. The other half comprise a few large concessions, one of them belonging to a Peer, who has really worked as a broad-minded pioneer in the country, never hesitating to make new experiments,

the fruits of which are now being reaped by his fellow settlers.

The highlands offer good prospects to the settlers both for agriculture and for pasturage. The European cereals which prove successful are oats, barley, and wheat. In the first years failures occurred frequently, because the meteorological conditions were not known; but the fact that, in spite of the increasing European population, the import of flour latterly shows a decrease, proves that, after all, the task has been successful.

Potatoes were, especially for the small farmer, a good ready-money crop, but the supply was soon larger than the demand; they were sold as far as the coast places, even Zanzibar and German East Africa, and there was also for some time an export to South Africa; but the attempt to get a regular market there failed, because they could not compete with the local produce.

The vast grazing grounds of the highlands offer still better chances for stock-raising. Experimental farms which the Government has established near Nairobi, and on other places in the highlands, teach the intending farmers the right methods, and provide them with seed and live stock.

From the very beginning of the settlement of British East Africa the impression has prevailed

that it was really a white man's country. Ex-President Roosevelt, who has seen a good deal of the world, emphasized in his Nairobi speech, to which I have before referred, that he had visited the home of settler after settler, both British and Dutch, and had seen large families of every age who had never been out of the country, and were as sturdy as anyone could wish them to be. He expressed the opinion that the country "where one could grow almost everything, from sugar and cotton to wheat and wool, apples and strawberries, had a great agricultural and industrial future," and thought "that the greatest need was to encourage white settlements, always supposing the settlers to be of the right type, of tough fibre, willing to work and conquer." He suggested that "ample inducements should be offered to the capitalist to come, but that it should always be kept in mind that a real white man's country could only be built up by making the opportunities favourable for the actual home-makers who do not expect to make great fortunes, but who do expect, as the reward of hard work, to build comfortable homes for themselves and their families, and to see their children grow up fit and able to inherit the land after them."¹

¹ *East African Standard*, August 7, 1909.

In German East Africa the question as to whether the country is suitable for European settlement is still somewhat doubtful. The highlands which may be suitable are, owing to the difficulty of getting to them, less known; and as long as no reliable experience has been obtained it is probably wise of the Government not to encourage European immigration on a big scale. The tests which the Government made on an experimental farm in the Usambara highlands were, in the first years—as far as live stock was concerned—not very promising: the possibilities which seemed to exist for cultivation of cereals were frustrated by the lack of means of conveyance to bring them to market. Since then the state of affairs has improved; settlers are doing well now in the Wilhelmstal district, and the surroundings of Kilima Njaro and Mount Meru already begin to present the appearance of a white man's country. A third of the whole land there has been disposed of, according to the last annual report of the German Government, and the statistics for 1908 report that 21,140 ha. have been let to thirty-seven Boers, 2,250 ha. to two Germans, 2,000 ha. to two Englishmen, and 390 ha. to a Greek. Since then the number has still further increased. There is a tendency of German settlers in Palestine to emigrate to German

East Africa; they have already sent emissaries to the Kilima Njaro, and if the favourable reports of the district continue, it is to be hoped that the ideal of the home-maker, which Roosevelt defined, has been found in our country.¹

In granting land, both the German and British Governments follow the principle that it shall not be given away for the purpose of speculation, but that the intending settler must really prove his intention of developing it. In British East Africa he is given five years to carry out a certain development, and when this has been effected, he receives a ninety-nine years' lease of the property. Small homestead farms of 320 acres may be acquired in freehold. In German East Africa a leasehold is first granted on condition that every year one-tenth of the land at least has to be brought under cultivation. Every tenth so developed may be acquired as freehold, and in addition to it a further tenth, so that after five years the whole land becomes his property.

The present German Colonial Secretary, Herr von Lindequist, who, on a tour of information in 1908, visited the British highlands, made very detailed inquiries about the possibilities of white settlement, and afterwards saw the German highlands extending south from Lake Victoria to the Kilima Njaro.

¹ About a dozen families have now settled there (1911).

They are said to be very similar to the British highlands, only the water question seems to offer some difficulties, which probably can be overcome by well-boring. This country will probably in the near future be opened for stock-farming on a large scale.

In addition to the attempts to further the production of colonial cotton, there exists at present a great interest at home in growing wool in the African colonies. At first sight the idea of selecting for this purpose a country on the Equator may appear to be fighting against Nature; nevertheless, the experiments made for some years in the British East African highlands have proved successful.

The large plains of Rift Valley have been grazed by large herds of sheep as far back as the memory of man can reach; but the domestic animal does not produce wool, carrying instead a coat of thick and coarse hair.

Experiments with imported flocks were at first started at the Government's farm at Morendat, in the Rift Valley, and the report which the manager gave for the year ending December, 1904, does not sound very satisfactory.¹ Diseases such as scab and heart-water caused heavy losses, and an insect pest, known as the sheep nostril fly, gave a con-

¹ *Africa*, No. 4, 1905.

siderable amount of trouble. Lincoln and Welsh ewes were not a success; the sheep *par excellence* appeared from the very beginning to be Merinos, whose lambs were soon much in request by the settlers. Fairly successful experiments were also made in crossing with native sheep, consisting of selected ewes. Repeated attempts to interest the Masai in woolled rams met with failure, as "their conviction that they originate from lions and hyenas is very firmly rooted."

In the beginning of 1906 a syndicate which owns large grazing areas in the Rift Valley imported 5,000 Merinos, at a cost of £20,000, from Australia; but the first experiment in sheep-farming on a large scale was not at all successful, the greater part of the flock and their offspring dying from diseases.

This failure did not discourage the bulk of the settlers, and after many bitter sacrifices, it may be finally stated now that wool-growing is proved to have a future in the East African highlands. Present experience shows that the importation of ewes as a rule does not justify the expense, but that the colonist—especially the one with limited resources—must confine his attention to the improvement of the native stock.¹

As to the way to grade up the local sheep, the

¹ Anderson, "Our Newest Colony," pp. 85-89.

Government experts favour the principle of first introducing to the native ewe such imported rams as will produce a breed of large frame, so that their progeny may be better able to resist the climate and can carry more wool. They suggest improving this first cross by a woollier strain. For instance, the British Lincoln, Welsh Mountain, and Welsh Border rams had first to produce a large-framed animal which, when afterwards crossed with Merino, would gain in wool-crop over a second cross through the Merino alone. It is obvious that those animals would also give more mutton than the small-framed Merino, but this latter argument is of little use for the farmers, as the demand for mutton is limited to the local market, and the chance of opening a frozen-mutton trade with South Africa and India is still a question of the future. At present most of the farmers prefer to grade up their flock with Merinos only. Their reasons are that the Merino ram is the most easily obtained, gives more wool at the first crop, and produces a hardy, if small, animal.

Graded sheep to the third generation have done very well, and the further they are bred away from the native, the more nearly do they approach to pure-bred animals.

Clipping from pure Merino bred in the country

realized in September, 1907, in the London market, 15½d. per pound, and was classified as "sixties super." For the first cross Merino-native 4d. was paid, and the prices for second cross Merino-native, Lincoln Merino-native, and Welsh Merino-native were between 6½d. to 8½d. per pound unscoured wool.

The first export was in 1906, and amounted to 309 cwt., at a value of £944. The figures for the following years are—

Year.	Cwt.	£
1907	247	841
1908	331	2,073
1909	319	1,367

The price for native ewes is about five or six shillings; rams can be imported from England and Australia for about £5. The Government farm at Morendat has annual sales, where colonists are able to pick up bargains. Also at private stock sales suitable rams are obtainable.

In the year ended March 31, 1909, the Government farm sold 1,307 sheep, which included 55 pure bred rams, 151 graded rams, 416 draft ewes, and 684 wethers.¹

¹ Annual Report of Department of Agriculture, British East Africa, 1908-9, p. 72.

The prices realized at an auction in October, 1908, were—

Pure-bred Merine rams	£1 5s. to £7 15s.
Rams, third cross, 11 months old	£10 to £15.
„ second „ 15 „	...	£11 to £30.
„ „ „ 11 „	...	£8 to £13.
Shropshire, Suffolk, and Kerry Hill rams, half-bred	£7 10s.
One Australian ewe	£4.
Merino ewes	£3 12s. 6d.
Native (Merino ewes in lamb by Suffolk rams)	Rs. 8½.

During the last few years settlers from German East Africa have begun to buy occasional sheep from their British neighbours. I heard that some months ago sixty sheep, thirty of them pure bred, were bought near Nairobi and driven overland to the Kilima Njaro district, which seems just as suitable for stock-farming as the Rift Valley in British East Africa. As mentioned above, the same is said about the highlands between Kilima Njaro and Lake Victoria. They offer good grazing places, and the agricultural expert who was a member of Herr von Lindequist's staff during his tour of information in 1908 is full of praise for their possibilities. Another part of German East Africa which may prove suitable as a place for stock-farming is Uhehe, which can easily be connected by a branch line with the German Central Railway.

Steps to start sheep-farming in German East Africa on a large scale are at present being taken by the Wollschafzucht - Syndikat, which was founded in 1909, with the idea of producing in our own colonies a part of this product, of which the German industry every year needs quantities at a value of 20,000,000 pounds sterling. Germany's own colonial production so far amounts to only a few thousand marks, which comes from South-West Africa. The number of sheep has, however, increased in the last three years from 3,500 to 20,000 animals.

The syndicate now intends to start a company for wool-growing in German East Africa. They applied to the Imperial Consulate at Mombasa for details about the experiments which English farmers had so far made, and declared their intention of buying in British East Africa about 100 ewes and a sufficient number of rams to mate with them. The Consulate gave them the answer that the Agricultural Department would sell them with pleasure a great number of Merinos, pure bred, and several first crossing, graded up Corridales, Suffolks, and Shropshires; half-bred Merino and Corridale ewes were also available.

A farmer who had heard of the intention of the syndicate offered forty-eight Merino rams at

£5 each. He stated that they had been bred on his farm from imported Australian ewes. Shorn last January, the flock produced an average of 8 lb. $\frac{3}{4}$ oz. wool per sheep; the lambs of seven months produced an average weight of 3 lb. 7 oz. of wool per lamb. The wool realized 9d. per lb. average at the London sales. The forty-eight rams would, in the opinion of the farmer, suffice to mate with 2,500 ewes.

The offer has been forwarded to the syndicate, but no answer has been received yet.

This shows that, if German settlers are inclined to start sheep-farming, they will have no difficulty in finding the necessary stock. It may be admitted that the price which this farmer demands is somewhat high, but a direct import from Europe would probably cost more, and the flock would not be so well suited to the African climate as the animals born in the country.

Other advantages which intending German farmers have over their British neighbours are that they can avoid the mistakes which in former years have been made in British East Africa, and profit by the experience gained there. So, for instance, it is now generally recognized that fencing is a necessary protection against worm diseases, and that a medical treatment of copper sulphoid, repeated twice a year, is useful.

In future, after German sheep-farming has passed the experimental stage, the settlers of the neighbouring countries may assist one another in exchanging rams in order to avoid inbreeding.

The above remarks about sheep-farming refer more or less to general stock.

There are millions of cattle in the German and British East African possessions. No less than between 976 and 1,433 tons of hides and skins were exported in 1906 to 1908 from German East Africa; in 1909 British East Africa produced 11,626 cwt. of hides for export; Uganda's export in 1908 was 5,931 cwt.¹ Hides and skins are in British East Africa and Uganda the principal items in the export statistics; in German East Africa they take the second place. A proof of the abundance of cattle in those territories is also the high figure which ghee (native butter) represents in the export statistics.

Most of the cattle are in the hands of the natives. The breed is not a very fine one, but has proved to be good material for grading up.² For breeding up Hereford, Ayrshire, Shorthorn, and Guernsey, bulls are kept on the British Government's farm at

¹ For German East Africa no separate statistics for hides and skins are given, and for British East Africa only since 1909. Uganda's figures for 1909 are not yet known.

² Anderson, "Our Newest Colony," pp. 103-107.

Morendat, and settlers can send their cows for service to the farm. At occasional auctions pure-bred and graded-up cattle can be bought. In the financial year 1908, 183 head were sold at Morendat.

The importation of pure-bred cows and heifers is being given up more and more. The experiment of importing cows in calf has proved a failure.

The natives at first did not show any interest in grading up their cattle; in Usambara, where a district officer once tried to persuade them by force that the system was a beneficial one, serious trouble ensued, which in the chronicle of German East Africa got a certain fame as the "bull war." But it seems that in the last year the natives have begun to grasp, in German East Africa as well as in British East Africa, the advantage of grading up their stock.

The demands of the local market for beef are limited, though butchers' requirements are increasing daily. The chances of opening a cold-storage trade with abroad have been referred to above. Some of the graded-up cattle can be sold as working oxen on farms. At present the most successful form of cattle-ranching is dairying. There is a regular supply of fresh butter, cheese, and milk from the British highlands to Mombasa. Opportunities for

carrying on the same business are less favourable in German East Africa, because there the conveyance offers more difficulties; but it is to be hoped that a similar transport of dairy produce will be possible to the coast when more white farmers begin to settle in the highlands which the Central Railway crosses.

The cattle diseases which are endemic in East Africa are a great drawback. In 1891 the rinderpest made terrible ravages all over the country. It has since appeared again here and there, and only a few months ago a new outbreak was reported in the south Masai reserve. The German Government, which was immediately informed by the Consulate, sent a veterinary officer to British East Africa, who made inquiries in the infected area, and, together with his British colleagues, finally discovered that it was not the real rinderpest, but a new disease, the character of which is not yet quite known.

It is obvious that the respective Governments have a joint interest in stamping out those diseases which endanger the economic development of their territories, and wherever the occasion arises the necessary steps are taken in full unanimity. Last year an International Veterinary Congress was held at the Hague, which, amongst other objects, turned its attention to the various stock diseases. To

describe those, and the measures which may be adopted against them in detail would be too difficult for a non-professional. I direct the attention of those who are particularly interested in the subject to an article written by the British Government's Veterinary Bacteriologist, Dr. A. Theiler. It is published in the *Agricultural Journal of British East Africa*, vol. iii., part 1 (April, 1910), pp. 25-42, and is entitled, "Notes on Stock Diseases of German and British East Africa and Uganda, and the Resolutions of the International Veterinary Congress at the Hague, Holland, 1909." The article also gives an idea of the co-operation between the German and British veterinary officers.

Pigs are doing well in the country, and breeding them has, both in German East Africa and in British East Africa, proved a paying business. There are factories in both the countries which provide the local markets.

Horses thrive well in the highlands where there is no tsetse fly. In Usambara good specimens have been bred, and in British East Africa their number is so considerable that every year two or three race meetings are held at Nairobi. The Government keeps some stallions at Morendat, which, for a small fee, can be used to serve the mares of the farmers. If the intended settlement in the highlands between

Kilima Njaro and Lake Victoria is really started, the farmers there will have good opportunities of buying horses from their British neighbours.

Ostrich-farming was started about ten years ago, by a German Company, on the Kilima Njaro, but, owing to unwise management, they had to give up the business. Later, in British East Africa, experiments were made with better success. South African experts found that the ostrich in the Rift Valley had very fine feathers, and quite a number of farms have been established there. There was an export of ostrich feathers from British East Africa in 1907 of 51 lb., at a value of £60, and in 1909 of 375 lb., at a value of £422. The figures for 1908 have not been published.

On the Kilima Njaro experiments have been made again lately. According to the last annual report of the German Government, about 100 birds were kept on farms there, and, though no export of feathers has been reported so far, there is no reason to assume that the undertaking should be less profitable than that in British East Africa. It depends only on the necessary experience, which is probably at present more highly developed in British East Africa, where many of the farmers have learnt ostrich-farming in South Africa.

The rearing of silkworms seems also promising in

some parts of East Africa. Mulberry-trees were planted in German East Africa first in 1894.¹ Later on the British Government had some hundred trees in the Kenia province,² but the experiments did not prove an industrial success. During the last year a settler has been more successful near Lake Victoria. There is a silkworm found there which feeds on indigenous plants; its cocoons are being collected by natives for this settler, who has a branch in Kampala (Uganda) and in Bukoba. There was an export of 1,006 kg., at a value of 933 marks, from Bukoba during last year.

The settler is trying to float a company to run his undertaking on a larger scale, and it is quite possible that the industry has a great future on the Lake.

The same company which formerly was interested in ostrich-farming has also made experiments in domesticating the zebra. For a long time the German and British Governments were interested in this question, and the latter particularly incurred heavy expenses in connection with it. It has been proved that these animals can be tamed, but neither the zebra itself nor any hybrid is as suitable for everyday work as are horses, donkeys, or oxen; and since

¹ K.B., 1895, p. 8.

² Eliot, "The East Africa Protectorate," p. 168.

it has been found out that the hope that the zebra would prove immune to tsetse fever or other endemic diseases was vain, further experiments have been given up, having more value from a sporting than an economic point of view.

There is every reason to believe that the African elephant would also be capable of domestication, but it is doubtful whether the experiment would be commercially successful. Last year the Uganda Government imported an elephant from India to work on road construction, but the experiment must have failed, as he has since been sold to Hagenbeck. Two elephants which Count Götzen had imported to East Africa, in 1904, for his expedition through the dark continent, had to be sent back soon after the commencement of the journey. Four elephants which an East African expedition, equipped by the King of Belgium in 1879, took to the interior, died during the march, apparently because the food and water which could be provided for them was insufficient for those fastidious animals.¹

The eland can probably be utilized as a domestic animal. A successful experiment of using them as draught animals has been made at the Government's farm near Nairobi. Four elands kept there, two of which are full grown, are as tame as any oxen, and

¹ *K.B.*, 1894, p. 575.

there is every hope that, with use, they will be just as submissive to the yoke. They stand about two hands higher than ordinary oxen, and are supposed to be immune to most of the cattle diseases.¹

¹ *East African Standard*, July 2, 1910, p. 9.

CHAPTER VI

NATURAL PRODUCTS

THOSE who are sceptical about the opportunities which tropical colonies may offer to white settlers must of necessity come to the conclusion that the future of those countries is mainly based on the productions of the native races. We have seen that in East Africa cotton cultivation depends a good deal—in Uganda entirely—on native cultivation, and that in the Muansa district the activity of the natives has led to the erection of husking works and a large export of rice.

Before the European occupation large quantities of grain went from the mainland to Zanzibar and the countries of the Persian Gulf. At present it is being suggested that the cultivation of maize should be started on a larger scale for export to South Africa, but probably this will be more a question of European enterprise.

Ground-nuts, simsim, and chillies, are articles particularly suitable for natives. The enormous export

of hides and skins would not be possible without the numberless herds of cattle and sheep raised by the pastoral tribes of the interior.

A business which will always be reserved chiefly to the native population is the collection of the raw products of the country. Rubber has already been mentioned, and another article of this sort which is of a great economic value is beeswax.

Bees are plentiful in East Africa, and the natives have always appreciated their honey; but the wax used to be thrown away as representing no value.

Not before 1903 was a general interest taken in the article, which, with the increasing demand in the home market, soon became one of the most important items of the export statistics. Its figures rose from 245 tons in 1904 to 675 tons in 1907, representing a value of £73,000.

Its success in German East Africa caused a German farmer in British East Africa to draw the attention of the Wakikuyu, a tribe used to hiving bees, to the article, and it soon came into favour there; the produce of the country represented, in 1903, a value of £184, and has since then increased to £7,600 in 1907.

The Uganda Government also made efforts to introduce the industry into their country. In 1908 they sent some sub-chiefs over to German East

Africa to get information in the Muansa and Bukoba districts about the methods of hiving bees and of collecting the wax. They were freely assisted by the German authorities in their attempts. Sufficient time has not yet elapsed to say whether the new industry will become popular amongst the Waganda; but a small export of wax is already reported for the period from April to November, 1909.

Since 1908 a decrease is remarkable in the produce of wax in German East Africa as well as in British East Africa. It is probable that there is a certain reciprocity between rubber and wax. If the one article fetches higher prices, the other is neglected by the collecting natives. During the last few years, it has been more profitable to collect rubber, and in the same proportion as its figure in the statistics rose, the figure for wax fell. Another cause which is held responsible for the decrease in the export of wax is that the old stocks in the interior seem to be exhausted, and also that here and there swarms of bees have been killed by a too greedy system of collecting their wax.

Gum copal may be mentioned here as an article which depends entirely on the industry of the natives. It is the resin of a wild-growing tree, and is used for varnishing. The best quality is the fossil

resin. Of this, as of beeswax, it has been found that the natural resources are diminishing. It was, therefore, a matter of interest to the trade when some years ago a German chemist declared that he had found a means of using the fruit of this tree for the varnishing industry. It seems that the experiment has failed, but it may be repeated with better success later on. Both German East Africa and British East Africa would have the benefit of it.

The export of ivory is based more or less on the work of natives. This brings us to a point on which a great solidarity of interests exists between the two respective Powers—viz., the protection of game.

Big game is incompatible with agriculture. The former has to disappear as the latter extends, much to the regret of the lover of nature. Its extirpation means also a loss to the economic sources of the colonies: the trophies represent a high commercial value, and big-game hunting attracts every year a number of wealthy people who spend their money in the country.

All these arguments have caused the German and British Governments to issue game regulations, and an international convention was signed in London in 1900, which laid down certain principles for the preservation of wild animals. A distinction

was drawn between animals whose preservation it was desired to insure, those of which it was desired to prohibit the destruction when young, and those whose females it was illegal to kill when accompanied by their young. The present German and British game regulations are based on those principles, and are more or less similar. The licence for a sportsman costs £50, which enables the holder to shoot specimens of most animals, additional charges being made for the shooting of elephants. Residents pay a smaller price for the same licence, and special facilities are given to the settlers.

That the sportsman's licence is expensive is as it should be. People who can afford to travel for their pleasure to East Africa may also contribute a fair sum to the cost of administering the country. It is only since 1909 that the German Government has made use of the financial value of its game. Under the old regulations a licence could be had for Rs. 10 only, and it was to a great extent the large earnings which the British Government realized from its game licences—they were estimated in 1904 at £3,188, and have since heavily increased—which caused the German Government to adopt a similar system.

The influx of sportsmen to British East Africa is more prominent than to German East Africa

because the Uganda Railway offers excellent facilities for reaching the hunting districts, whilst in the German colony long safaris are necessary.

Special regulations have been issued by the two Powers to protect the ivory supply. Tusks of female and infant elephants are confiscated when found in anyone's possession; the smallest weight of tusk allowed in German East Africa is 5 kg., whilst in the British territory tusks of less than 30 lb. are prohibited. The regulation is so strictly enforced that even tusks which are in transit through British East Africa from another country are confiscated by the Customs authority if they are not according to the regulations.

The ivory which the Governments acquire as royalty or otherwise is sold from time to time by auction in the Custom Houses at Daressalam and Mombasa, the dates being always published a long time in advance, to enable the traders of the neighbouring countries to participate.

As to this article, Zanzibar has still kept its position as a central market. The tusks exported from German East Africa nearly all find their way there, while Mombasa, where two American ivory firms have branches, ships only about a fifth of its export to Zanzibar, the remainder going directly to America, Europe, and India.

The finding of minerals is in most cases a matter of luck. One may prospect during months in a district without discovering anything, and as soon as one leaves, a new-comer may by chance discover in the same place the richest mines.

The geological formation of German East Africa and the two British possessions is certainly the same, and the minerals which have been found in the one may be supposed to exist in the others as well.

The gold-mines of Sekenke have already been referred to. They belong to a reef which runs northward across the British boundary through Kamagombo in the Nyassa Province, and probably reappears on the Sio River in Uganda.¹ The Belgian gold-mines on the west of Lake Albert are perhaps also connected with it. The mines of Sekenke now give a considerable profit, but the gold which so far has been found in the British territory is of such a kind that the working of it would prove unremunerative. In March, 1907, the news that copper, gold, and diamonds were found near Makindu caused general excitement, but turned out to be a hoax.

Mica is dug in the Uluguru Mountains in German East Africa, and in 1908 represented already an export figure of 77 tons, at a value of £16,550. It

¹ Eliot, "The East Africa Protectorate," p. 159.

is also found along the Tsavo River, in British East Africa, and the flakes are apparently of considerable size,¹ but no attempts have hitherto been made to gather it.

Valuable clays have been found in the hinterland of Tanga in German East Africa, and in the Rift Valley and near Lamu in British East Africa. The Industrial Mission established a manufactory of tiles, bricks, and pots, near Mombasa. Their tiles especially soon became popular, and began to oust the ugly corrugated iron, which is still mostly used for roofing. For the past two years a German company have been considering a plan for establishing a cement factory near Tanga, and are making inquiries about the possibilities of a market. Unfortunately, no exact details can be given about the import of cement to British East Africa, because this article is not mentioned separately in the Customs statistics of Mombasa, but is included in the general item of building materials. The chances of manufacturing cement in the country can, however, be supposed to be good, as at present the local price of the article is heavily influenced by the high cost of transport. At Lamu, too, a farmer intends to erect a factory, but he cannot yet raise the necessary capital.

¹ Eliot, "The East Africa Protectorate," p. 160.

A product which will probably shortly contribute to the further development of German and British East Africa is carbonate of soda. There are two soda lakes near the boundary, the one on the English, the other on the German side. A syndicate with large means was formed two years ago in London to take advantage of the Magadi Lake on the English side. It is intended to build a railway-line for a distance of sixty miles, connecting the Lake with a station of the Uganda Railway ; and it is said that the work will be done on such a big scale that two goods trains will be despatched every day, and a special manufactory for barrels on the Lake and a pier at Kilindini Harbour will be necessary. The route for the future railway was surveyed last year, and though nothing definite has been heard since,¹ it seems likely that the work will be started soon.

The attention of German business-men has also been attracted to the possibilities of their soda lake. Only lately a German banking combine have sent out an expert to report upon the commercial value of the soda found in the Lake. This gentleman is, if the information given to me is correct, rather pessimistic about the scheme of a commercial enterprise on the Lake, but in the meantime I learn that

¹ A contract for the railway has now been signed.

an English financier has applied to the German Government for a concession. His agent, who is at present in Mombasa, was full of hope, and expressed to me the opinion that the soda would find a large market, even if the work was started on the two lakes at the same time. He said that his principal was able to build a railway in connection with the terminus of the Usambara Railway, and would guarantee a minimum export of 100,000 tons a year.

Little use has been made, up till now, of the riches which East Africa possesses in its forests. Both Governments regard it as their principal duty to conserve and enlarge them, rather than to encourage a rash commercial use. Therefore, whenever concessions are granted, guarantees must be given for new afforestation. Some concessions have been given in the British colony, particularly in the Mau Escarpment, but there is no export of wood so far ; the consumption is local, and even so the supply is not yet sufficient, and large quantities of timber are still imported annually from Norway.

German East Africa is in this respect ahead of its neighbour. The Usambara mountains, now reached in one day's journey from Tanga, carry large forests of fine cedar, and several companies

have already made use of them. One has constructed a branch railway to the Usambara line, another has erected a funicular railway at considerable cost. There was already in 1908 an export of fine wood—not including bark—of 657 cbm., at a value of £3,149, to Germany, and of 223 cbm., at a value of £554, to Zanzibar.

Fuel is used in large quantities by the railways in the respective Protectorates, and it is an important matter for the Governments that an adequate supply should be insured for the future.

On the coast the mangroves represent an article of high value. Towards the end of last century a German merchant first discovered that their bark produces a good tannin, the best of them, which grow near Lamu, giving between 50 and 60 per cent. The first exports were made from this port in 1903, of a value of £1,155. As the tree is abundant on most parts of the coast, his example soon found imitators; numerous concessions were given along the British and German shores, and the export gradually increased. New methods have since been found for its industrial use, and there is even a project to erect a factory in German East Africa for the extraction of the tannin. The poles of the mangroves are used as building material for native huts, and are, as far as they are not con-

sumed locally, exported to Zanzibar, India, and Arabia.

The bark collected in British East Africa was, as long as the German merchant still held the principal concession, exported by German ships, which earned from him during the last years an average of £6,000 in freight. After the expiration of the concession, it was given to an English company, which is in close connection with the Government, and ships the article on their own boats.

Another tree of use for the tanning industry is the black wattle, which grows well in the Usambara mountains, and has been planted for some years in the British highland. Their bark gives an average of 33 per cent. of tannin.

Fish, cowries, tortoise, and other shells, call for no remarks; but it is worthy of mention that pearl-fishing was carried on for some time in the territorial waters. Several concessions were given in the south of German East Africa, but the business did not pay. Ambergris is occasionally found on the northern shore of British East Africa, but it has never been reported that it has drifted so far south as to the German coast.

CHAPTER VII

MUTUAL EXCHANGE OF EXPERIENCE

IN the preceding chapters, I think, the products are exhausted in which a reciprocal economic interest exists between the German and British Protectorates in East Africa. Mutual interest and peaceful competition are greatly stimulated by exhibitions.

The first one in East Africa, of more than local interest, was held in July, 1903,¹ at Mombasa. It was undertaken by the British East African Agricultural and Horticultural Society. Uganda, Zanzibar, and German East Africa, were invited to participate. The invitation to the latter arrived somewhat late, but in spite of that its share in the exhibition was not small. The German plantations and their produce proved especially interesting; photos of the former were shown. Coffee, fibre, vanilla, and cotton gained first prizes. German timber, and furniture manufactured from it, was much admired; and among native products, tobacco,

¹ *African Standard*, July 25, 1903.

simsim, and ground-nuts were granted first prizes. Of manufactured articles, German East Africa exhibited with the same success matting, bricks, tiles, and soap. British East Africa made its mark with farming produce—live stock, dairy produce, vegetables, and flowers.

The *Official Gazette of British East Africa*, in reporting on the show, recognized that much of its beauty was due to the great energy displayed by our German neighbours, who at a short notice sent up a very fine array of exhibits, many of which were selected by the judges for prizes.¹

At an exhibition of colonial produce which was held at Daressalam in the next year British East Africa took no part; the Government sent only, to show their interest, the Director of the Agricultural Department as representative.²

In 1905, again, a show was held in Zanzibar which was even attended by visitors from Madagascar and the Seychelles. British East Africa again contributed mainly the produce of agriculture and live stock—grain, maize, potatoes, vegetables, butter, cheese, and so on—and obtained thirty-two prizes out of forty-six exhibits.

German East Africa again took a much more

¹ *O.G.*, 1903, p. 272.

² *D.O.A.Z.*, August 13, 1904.

general part, nearly every possible product of the country being shown. "We feel no compunction," says the *Zanzibar Gazette*,¹ "in meting out a full measure of praise, even at our own expense, to our neighbours across the water. If we had been asked what was the most important exhibit on the ground, we should have said that of Amani, not so much for what it was (though it lacked little in that respect) as for what it represented. No settler student of natural history or anyone interested in East African progress could have failed to detect in the carefully arranged exhibits the fruit of much laborious research, which in time must prove of immense benefit to the country. As an experimental station Amani is far and away the best equipped of any on the east coast ; it would, perhaps, be more correct to say that it is the only properly equipped biological-agricultural experimental station in this part of the world."

During recent years this excellent institute has also attracted visitors from British East Africa, where the settlers were in former times comparatively indifferent to what happened across the frontier. But no sooner were the German successes with rubber and sisal known, than there was a rush to our colony with the view of getting useful informa-

¹ September 13, 1905.

tion. In the last few years the Consulate at Mombasa gave many letters of introduction to the Amani Institute and the planters in Usambara, and whenever visitors returned, they were full of praise of what they had seen there; and in the quarterly publication which the agricultural department of British East Africa issues accounts are often given of the German methods of dealing with the tropical products. So, for instance, in the edition of January, 1910, an English planter, who had just returned from a run through the rubber districts of German East Africa, gives in an article detailed notes on Ceara rubber in German East Africa. About the reception he got in Usambara he writes: "I should like to record a sense of the friendliness with which we were received, the willingness displayed to give information and explain the minutest details, and, further, we were most hospitably entertained. Nothing was a trouble, and to make us comfortable seemed quite a pleasure."

It may be mentioned here that copies of this quarterly are regularly sent by the English Agricultural Department to the Government at Dar-es-salam and to the institute at Amani. In exchange the British Government receives the respective German publications.

It is no wonder that British East Africa is better

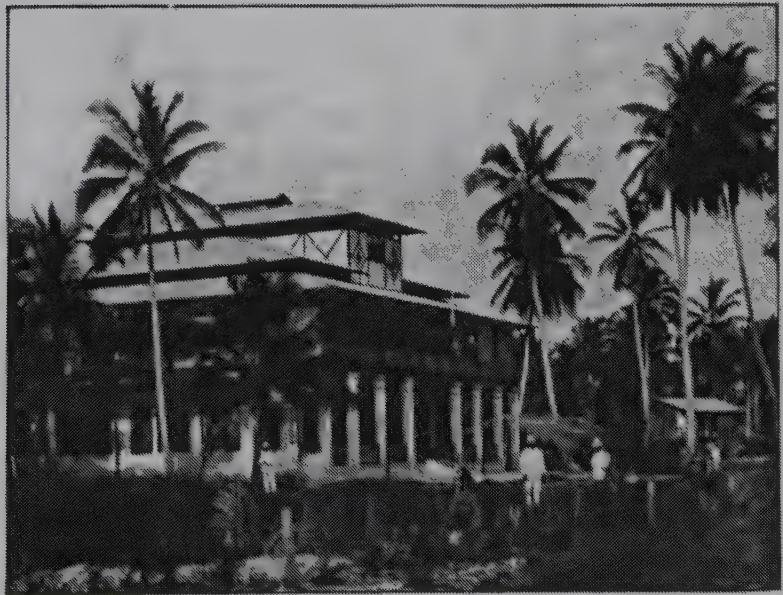
known to Germans than the German colony is to English people. Mombasa has to be passed by residents of the German colony on their way from and to Europe, whilst German East Africa is out of the way of those who have their homes in British East Africa or Uganda. Many German officers have to cross right through British East Africa on the way to their stations, and time generally allows them a short break in the journey at Nairobi or some other interesting place in the interior. Many others are attracted by the facility which the Uganda Railway offers for an interesting trip round Lake Victoria.

But, apart from this, the German interest in their neighbours is keener than *vice versa*. Governors of the German colony have often visited the neighbouring colony ; even the Secretary and Under-Secretary of the German Colonial Office went to British East Africa to collect information there, but a British Governor has never called at Darassalam, nor, during his visit to British East Africa, did Mr. Winston Churchill—at that time Colonial Secretary—extend his journey to the neighbouring colony.

The reason is obvious. The English are a nation of long colonial experience. For experiments in a new colony they easily find models in one of their old possessions ; they do not need to go to school to



NATIONAL BANK AT MOMBASA.



ONE OF THE GOVERNMENT OFFICES AT DARESSALAM.

70 7511
ABSTRACT

such a colonial parvenu as their German neighbour appears to them to be. We, on the contrary, are glad to learn wherever we can, being novices in all colonial questions.

But there is also another side to the question. For us East Africa was the jewel of all our colonial possessions, whilst in the huge British Colonial Empire their East African Protectorates were looked upon as step-children. The general interest in them was exhausted for some time by the construction of the Uganda Railway, which had swallowed enormous sums, and after its completion there was not much inclination to make further sacrifices for their development. In Germany, on the contrary, the colonial interest which awoke by-and-by was mostly concentrated on the East African possession. So everything which has been done in German East Africa is of a solid character ; in British East Africa one notices everywhere the tendency to save money. One has only to compare the two capitals, Dares-salam and Mombasa. At the one are smart villas with all home comforts ; at the other ugly bungalows of corrugated iron.

German East Africa had in the last calendar year a total trade of £2,353,060 ; the import represented a value of £1,697,085, the export of £655,975. The corresponding figures for British East Africa during

the financial year 1909 were : Total £1,365,303 ; import, £775,246 ; and export, £590,057. In those figures Uganda's imports and exports are included, and in the figures for exports even the transit goods from German East Africa and the Congo State, which amount to £228,002, are comprised.

This shows that our colony is far more developed than the two British East African Protectorates. It would be vanity to attribute our better successes to better colonial methods adopted by us ; a good deal of it we even owe to our neighbours, who by their railway have opened to cultivation some of the best parts of our colony. But the principal point is that in the division of East Africa we have apparently got hold of the better territory.

CHAPTER VIII

FUTURE PROSPECTS

PROPHECYING is a thankless task. In 1903 a report of the German Consul at Zanzibar tried to prove the incipient independence of German East Africa's trade from the Zanzibar market. The partner of a German firm, one who claimed to be, and was regarded as, one of the best experts on the East African trade, wrote a paper against this view, and pointed out, with detailed statistics and much eloquence, that Zanzibar would for ever remain the centre of the East African trade, and that in the same degree as the mainland was developed the position of Zanzibar would be strengthened. Should this gentleman, who had known East Africa for two decades, read his remarks again to-day, he would hardly maintain his thesis.

The prospects for the future relations between German East Africa and British East Africa are not more easily given.

The shipping question has at present reached a

new stage. The German line had a sort of monopoly on the east coast for twenty years; so much so, indeed, that most of the trade of British East Africa was carried in her bottoms. This state of affairs gave rise to criticisms in English quarters, and for a long time the establishment of a direct British line between England and East Africa has been agitated for. Now, in this year, two British lines have started running to East Africa, the above-mentioned Union Castle Line and a special cargo line (Harrison, Ellerman, and Clan). They do not call at the German East African ports, nor is it likely that a tariff war between them and the Deutsche Ostafrika Linie will arise. But even without this the German line will suffer heavy losses in their traffic from and to British East Africa. First of all, she will lose a great number of her usual passengers, many of whom are officers of the East Africa and Uganda Protectorates, who, of course, will be sent in future by the Union Castle Line.

In cargo, the competition will be felt as well, more as regards the goods exported from British East Africa than those shipped there from Europe, for the English goods were already mostly carried in English vessels, and there is not much likelihood that the new English cargo line will take away many of the continental freights. The only con-

tinental ports they call at are Antwerp, Marseilles, and Naples, and the German line has the advantage of through bills of lading from the interior.

But in spite of the new competition, there is not the slightest reason why the Deutsche Ostafrika Linie should altogether withdraw from the British East African ports, as did the Union Castle from Dares-salam and Tanga. Germany imports goods at a value of £79,400, and exports of £75,767, to and from British East Africa and Uganda. This means out of the total trade 10·2 per cent. of the imports and 12·9 per cent. of the exports. These figures, in addition to the figure represented by the goods passing to and from German East Africa, in transit through British East Africa, justify the existence of a German line in British East Africa.

True, this transit trade will not last for ever. The Kilima Njaro district—as has been pointed out already—will soon fall under the influence of the Usambara Railway. A further period must elapse before the Lake districts are served by a German railway. Up to the present the means have been voted only for the construction of a line as far as Tabora. The probable influence which the extension of the railway up to this point will have on the Lake ports has been alluded to in Chapter II. Plans for the further extension of the railway have

not yet been published, but it is certain that the next care of the German Government will be to get a connection with Lake Tanganyika. The construction of a branch line to Lake Victoria is a *cura posterior*. Our Lake ports are very well served by the Uganda Railway, and it would be foolish to take a German line there with the idea of competing with our British neighbours. The result would be that the Uganda Railway would lose, but we would not gain. Railway building is an expensive undertaking in a tropical country, and the capital we are able to raise for this purpose is greatly needed for new countries which still await development. There are large districts in the north-west of our colony which promise a good economic future—namely, the provinces Ruanda and Urundi, which have been mentioned before.

The highlands between Kilima Njaro may also be liable to a development which one cannot anticipate at present. If it proves a country for stock-farming and for white settlement, it will be necessary to extend the Usambara Railway, and, in course of time, this line should reach the Lake. In any case, it would only be necessary for one of the two German lines to connect the Lake with the coast. Wherever the terminus may be, a place where large ships can anchor would have to be selected, and this

would become the principal port for all trade on the German side of the Lake.

This will happen sooner or later, and then the Uganda Railway will lose much of its present earnings. But in the meantime other countries will have been developed within the sphere of its influence. At present a line is being constructed from Jinja to Kakindu on Lake Choga. This opens new districts of Uganda which offer, on account of their fertility and the intelligence of their population, great economic possibilities. From Nairobi a branch is in construction to the Kenia district, and other feeders will follow by-and-by. So, what the Uganda Railway loses in German transit will be replaced by the increase of traffic in the British Protectorates. The English authorities are not, therefore, nervous with regard to the prospect of one day losing the German transit trade.

This, however, will certainly mean an important severance of the commercial relations between the respective Protectorates. German East Africa's position will be strengthened when all the traffic which passes through British East Africa goes directly to Daressalam or Tanga. The development of these two ports has shown what the influence of a railway to the interior means. The former place, in early years merely the centre of administration,

has grown to be an emporium of trade. Before long, many of the firms which now buy the produce of German East Africa in Mombasa will open branches in Daressalam—first of all, those which deal in hides and skins—and it is likely that the two firms which export ivory from Mombasa will settle at the principal German ports. Some other Mombasa firms which import goods via the Uganda Railway to the north-east of German East Africa will do the same.

The German commercial interests in British East Africa will then somewhat decrease; but, on the other hand, the direct exchange of goods between German East Africa and the two British Protectorates will grow in proportion to the general increase of trade. It has been mentioned that at present the Muansa district supplies great quantities of rice to British East Africa, whilst the latter country exports a good deal of samli to German East Africa. In the same way other articles may be found in course of time which the one country is more able to produce than the other, and for which the other offers a good market.

Further, the more a country is generally developed the more possibilities it offers for every new-comer. There are at present about a hundred German subjects living in British East Africa, and a dozen

in Uganda ; over half a dozen large German companies are doing business, and some smaller traders and farmers are gaining their bread there. English interest in German East Africa has increased lately. In addition to the one company which has plantations on the Kilima Njaro, other syndicates have—as mentioned above—invested capital in rubber estates, and often enough questions are brought before the Consulate at Mombasa about the opportunities which a settler would have in German East Africa. There is every chance that the more the development proceeds the more the reciprocal interests will increase.

Of great importance also is the part which Germany takes in the trade of the British Protectorates, and which England takes in that of German East Africa. The respective figures of Germany have been given above. England's direct trade with German East Africa amounted in 1908 to £62,930 for imports, and £6,076 for exports. India, a part of the British Empire, supplied in the same year to German East Africa goods at a value of £210,586, while the exports from there to India amounted to £2,850. There are many hundreds of Indian traders doing business in the German colony. This guarantees also for the future a mutual commercial interest.

As regards special economic relations between German East Africa and the two British Protectorates, there will always remain a certain solidarity of interest on account of the fact that the produce and the needs of the countries are more or less identical. Methods which have proved useful in the one territory will be of use in the neighbouring country as well. Thus, to mention one instance, cotton cultivation seems to have a great future in East Africa, and the time may not be very far distant when mills can be started there. The first land to prove suitable for it would probably be Uganda; it offers the best prospects for this product, and has an intelligent population which seems more able to be trained to assist in machinery work than do the natives of other parts of East Africa. It would, of course, mean quite a revolution in the economic status of East Africa, if the cotton goods—at present the principal item of the imports—were manufactured in the country itself. It would mean a heavy decrease in the Government's revenue for import duties, and many of the old firms which derive their best earnings from the sale of European and American piece goods would have to look for other sources of income. But, on the other hand, the establishment of a regular inland industry would mean so high a development that this possibility could easily be

accepted. The country which started first could easily become a supplier to the neighbouring colony.

The same would be the case if the intended cement factory could be started in German East Africa. It would probably work cheaply enough to oust a further import from Europe.

The possibilities are so manifold that it would be ridiculous to go into details. What can be assumed as certain is that the gradual development will have the effect of making the economic relations between German East Africa and the two British Protectorates closer and closer ; and so, in peaceful competition, Germany and England will work together for the expansion of civilization in East Africa.

APPENDIX A

GERMAN EAST AFRICA'S TRADE WITH ZANZIBAR (IN MARKS) SINCE 1898.

Year.	Exports to Zanzibar.	Percentage of the Total Export.	Imports from Zanzibar.	Percentage of the Total Import.
1898 ...	3,215,805	74	7,024,547	60
1899 ...	2,696,427	69	7,094,956	66
1900 ...	2,987,189	69	5,873,976	51
1901 ...	3,169,411	69	5,951,925	63
1902 ...	3,548,139	67	5,060,767	57
1903 ...	3,387,786	56	5,531,459	54
1904 ...	3,644,195	41	5,411,274	37
1905 ...	2,132,318	21	4,632,665	26
1906 ...	1,378,049	12	4,153,151	17
1907 ...	2,411,170	19	4,178,869	13
1908 ...	1,877,191	17	4,269,193	17
1909 ...	2,271,100	17	4,296,500	13

APPENDIX B—I.

BRITISH EAST AFRICA'S TRADE WITH ZANZIBAR (IN STERLING) SINCE 1897.

Year.	Exports to Zanzibar.	Percentage of the Total Export.	Imports from Zanzibar.	Percentage of the Total Import.
1897 ...	43,548	62	106,953	23
1898 ...	59,544	83	206,635	43
1899 ...	86,038	70	109,640	24
1900 ...	72,507	86	101,520	23
1901 ...	82,469	73	129,748	30
1902 ...	36,642	25	153,367	34
1903 ...	33,986	21	82,567	19
1904 ...	30,546	13	99,725	19
1905 ...	23,778	7	97,190	14
1906 ...	28,761	6	91,655	12
1907 ...	40,178	8	76,538	9
1908 ...	36,434	8	75,848	9
1909 ...	53,866	9	1	1

The figures of the exports to Zanzibar in 1902 are according to the official statistics of British East Africa. The other figures are based on the Zanzibar statistics.

APPENDIX B—II.

ARTICLES EXPORTED FROM BRITISH EAST AFRICA TO
ZANZIBAR SINCE 1904.

	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
Carbonate of soda ...	—	—	—	—	—	200
Chillies ...	1,400	—	—	—	—	—
Copra ...	700	900	4,600	3,500	2,200	4,000
Gum copal ...	—	300	400	900	300	800
Ghee ...	1,900	1,800	1,200	4,600	†	3,700
Grain ...	2,000	3,700	2,500	5,700	3,900	6,400
Hides, skins, and horns	2,800	700	—	2,460	2,100	3,574
Ivory ...	15,700	6,700	8,700	10,000	13,900	21,200
Live stock	1,300	500	1,000	2,700	1,500	4,200
Potatoes ...	1,100	1,300	1,000	1,600	1,700	1,500
Rubber ...	—	—	—	—	6	1,600
Tortoise and shells ...	155	†	†	513	†	375
Wood ...	700	—	—	400	200	200
Other articles ...	1,600	3,000	3,600	—	10,000	4,400

APPENDIX C—I.

TOTAL VALUE (IN STERLING) OF DIRECT TRADE BETWEEN
GERMAN EAST AFRICA AND BRITISH EAST AFRICA.

Year.	Total Import to British East Africa.	Imported from German East Africa.	Per Cent. of Total Import.	Total Export of British East Africa.	Exported to German East Africa.	Per Cent. of Total Export.	Grand Total of Trade between German East Africa and British East Africa.
1903	436,947	—	—	159,815	1,065	0·6	1,065
1904	518,143	10,585	2·7	234,664	503	0·2	11,088
1905	672,360	10,971	1·6	332,839	2,305	0·7	13,276
1906	753,647	10,824	1·4	440,705	2,981	0·6	13,805
1907	799,717	8,070	1·1	515,052	2,875	0·5	10,945
1908	797,158	10,488	1·3	436,313	2,932	0·7	13,470
1909	775,246	17,079	2·2	590,057	4,532	0·8	21,611

APPENDIX C—II.

VALUE (IN STERLING) OF VARIOUS ARTICLES IMPORTED INTO
BRITISH EAST AFRICA FROM GERMAN EAST AFRICA.

	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
Agricultural implements ...	196	210	195	—	—	—
Building materials ...	28	7	—	—	—	12
Furniture ...	—	—	—	—	—	8
Grain :						
Rice ...	2,847	5,039	4,238	4,611	4,956	1,155
Wheat ...	—	—	—	12	—	—
Other sorts ...	2,330	325	117	414	1,664	1,162
Live stock :						
Cattle			—	—	—	7
Horses			—	—	49	—
Donkeys			—	—	123	—
Mules			—	—	56	—
Sheep	2,229	565	—	—	49	3
Goats			12	—	—	1
Poultry			—	—	20	13
Ostriches			10	27	—	—
Provisions of all sorts ...	2,344	2,419	3,616	1,435	1,366	2,448
Seeds and plants	—	7	176	723	204	147
Tobacco ...	120	122	180	179	670	226
Wood ...	56	—	—	—	—	—
Hides and skins	—	—	—	—	—	4,013
Rubber ...	—	—	—	—	—	550
Ivory ...	—	—	—	—	—	337
All other sorts	422	2,277	2,280	669	1,375	6,997

APPENDIX C—III.

VALUE (IN STERLING) OF VARIOUS ARTICLES EXPORTED FROM
BRITISH EAST AFRICA TO GERMAN EAST AFRICA.

	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
Borities ...	—	—	—	24	23	—
Carbonate of soda ...	—	—	—	—	—	415
Copra ...	—	257	—	18	25	—
Coffee ...	333	48	21	56	—	98
Ghee ...	170	593	375	1,172	†	1,090
Grain :						
Maize ...	—	193	548	10	—	—
Millet ...	—	—	—	—	—	72
Pulse ...	—	—	—	—	—	245
Simsim ...	—	—	—	—	—	42
Rice ...	—	—	671	—	508	221
Beans ...	—	—	—	—	—	3
Groundnuts ...	—	—	—	35	†	637
Potatoes ...	—	1,073	1,120	1,164	885	983
Live stock :						
Horses ...	—	—	—	—	—	60
Mules ...	—	—	—	—	100	240
Donkeys ...	—	—	—	65	—	127
Cattle ...	—	—	—	5	—	28
Sheep ...	—	—	—	—	—	30
Goats ...	—	—	—	—	—	6
Wild animals	—	—	—	—	—	263
All other sorts ...	—	182	—	—	—	235

APPENDIX D

VALUE (IN MARKS) OF IMPORT AND EXPORT INTO AND FROM GERMAN EAST AFRICA IN TRANSIT
THROUGH BRITISH EAST AFRICA.

IMPORT.								
	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908. ¹	1909.	1910 (from January to June).	
Moschi ...	122,681	169,534	247,114	191,041	290,998	432,401	178,176	
Schirati ...	116,780	93,585	123,574	93,130	46,135	77,695	40,635	
Muansa ...	602,850	1,125,423	2,390,154	2,480,996	1,741,294	1,859,811	1,504,729	
Bukoba ...	501,239	509,266	754,386	770,427	465,461	1,090,349	645,476	
Total ...	1,343,550	1,897,808	3,515,228	3,535,594	2,543,888	3,460,256	2,369,016	
Grand total of import	14,338,888	17,655,350	25,152,851	23,806,369	25,152,861	33,941,700	—	
Per cent. ...	9	11	14	15	10	10.2	—	
EXPORT.								
Moschi ...	182,450	149,018	163,497	132,456	119,040	175,857	94,338	
Schirati ...	88,398	150,958	184,643	195,263	94,767	174,677	91,082	
Muansa ...	423,246	1,353,326	1,957,959	2,407,965	1,389,174	1,694,444	1,318,567	
Bukoba ...	434,925	511,834	762,189	721,870	439,501	956,953	613,374	
Total ...	1,128,959	2,165,136	3,068,288	3,457,554	2,042,482	3,001,931	2,117,361	
Grand total of export	8,980,565	9,949,661	10,994,712	12,500,179	10,873,856	13,119,500	—	
Per cent. ...	13	22	28	28	19	22.9	—	

APPENDIX E

VALUE (IN STERLING) OF TRANSIT GOODS IMPORTED INTO
BRITISH EAST AFRICA.

1903	18,400
1904	57,067
1905	131,751
1906	172,216
1907	189,647
1908	157,020
1909	228,002

VALUE (IN STERLING) OF GOODS EXPORTED FROM GERMAN
EAST AFRICA IN TRANSIT THROUGH BRITISH EAST AFRICA.

1903	6,107
1904	43,270
1905	93,179
1906	138,030
1907	174,661
1908	102,119
1909	167,000

(According to British statistics.)

APPEN UGANDA

STATEMENT OF GROSS RECEIPTS DERIVED FROM BOOKING TO AND FROM GERMAN

COACHING.

Port.	Number of Passengers Inwards.			Total.	Inwards Receipts.	Number of Passengers Outwards.			Total.
	1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.			1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.	
From February 1, 1904, to March 31, 1904:					Rs.				
Schirati	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	6	7
Muansa	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	5	8
Bukoba	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	5
Total	—	—	—	—	—	4	—	16	20
From April 1, 1904, to March 31, 1905:									
Schirati	3	12	119	134	891	4	2	58	64
Muansa	2	36	304	342	4,577	21	16	144	181
Bukoba	9	17	71	97	2,236	9	12	136	157
Total	14	65	494	573	7,704	34	30	338	402
From April 1, 1905, to March 31, 1906:									
Schirati	7	9	182	148	1,202	1	4	135	140
Muansa	47	92	489	628	15,506	45	87	453	585
Bukoba	16	21	174	211	2,902	15	14	176	206
Total	70	122	795	987	19,610	61	105	764	930
From April 1, 1906, to March 31, 1907:									
Schirati	11	21	113	145	1,502	13	20	110	143
Muansa	57	80	690	837	19,918	56	40	408	504
Bukoba	20	20	240	280	4,002	18	9	248	275
Total	88	131	1,043	1,262	25,422	87	69	766	922
From April 1, 1907, to March 31, 1908:									
Schirati	31	18	273	327	2,929	37	18	226	281
Muansa	123	93	1,126	1,342	23,749	59	57	796	912
Bukoba	58	49	492	599	15,543	32	32	579	643
Total	212	160	1,896	2,268	47,221	128	107	1,601	1,836
From April 1, 1908, to March 31, 1909:									
Schirati	Details not available.					14	12	168	194
Muansa						66	63	1,081	1,210
Bukoba						50	16	620	686
Total	—	—	—	—	—	130	91	1,869	2,090
From April 1, 1909, to March 31, 1910:									
Schirati	14	7	169	190	2,391	15	4	136	155
Muansa	86	41	812	939	13,794	79	40	801	920
Bukoba	77	16	782	875	11,580	42	13	474	529
Total	177	64	1,763	2,004	32,765	136	57	1,411	1,604

DIX F.

RAILWAY.

LAKE PORTS SINCE INAUGURATION OF LAKE STEAMER SERVICE.

Goods.

Outwards Receipts.	Other Coaching Receipts.	Total Coaching Receipts.	Goods Traffic Inwards.		Goods Traffic Outwards.		Total Goods Receipts.	Gross Receipts.
			Tons.	Receipts.	Tons.	Receipts.		
Ra.	Ra.	Ra.		Ra.		Ra.	Ra.	Ra.
58	—	58	1	84	8	817	401	459
301	—	301	12	2,215	99	4,493	6,708	7,009
28	—	28	21	3,814	30	3,075	6,889	6,917
387	—	387	34	6,113	137	7,885	13,998	14,385
519	189	1,549	65	7,157	52	4,367	11,524	13,073
3,515	2,533	10,680	517	76,784	613	41,337	118,071	128,751
1,953	1,112	5,300	335	45,692	238	25,584	71,276	76,576
5,986	3,839	17,529	917	129,583	953	71,288	300,871	218,400
831	620	2,653	54	5,383	54	4,224	9,622	12,265
16,116	10,184	41,806	1,332	226,686	2,135	116,194	342,880	384,686
3,820	416	7,138	364	51,422	503	34,535	85,957	93,095
20,767	11,220	51,597	1,750	283,496	2,692	154,953	433,449	490,046
1,365	12	2,879	—	—	—	601	22,016	24,895
11,514	597	32,029	—	—	—	3,133	149,720	151,749
3,002	88	7,042	—	—	—	545	83,357	45,399
15,881	647	41,950	—	—	—	4,329	210,093	252,043
2,988	96	6,013	125	12,126	581	21,286	33,412	39,425
18,682	759	43,190	1,921	281,124	2,432	136,839	418,013	466,203
6,166	149	21,858	550	68,357	788	44,076	112,433	134,291
27,836	1,004	76,061	2,596	361,607	3,751	202,251	563,858	639,919
1,602	3	—	87	7,111	392	12,857	19,963	—
13,867	719	—	2,181	286,046	2,900	123,561	409,607	—
5,480	263	—	729	80,475	771	43,698	124,173	—
20,949	990	—	2,997	373,637	4,063	180,116	553,743	—
1,804	167	4,357	117	12,535	303	13,313	25,853	30,213
11,894	1,772	32,460	1,948	303,707	2,662	127,568	431,275	463,735
3,712	1,247	21,539	997	136,649	1,120	63,423	205,075	226,614
22,410	3,181	53,356	3,062	452,891	4,085	209,312	662,203	720,559

La Vergne, TN USA
10 September 2009

157353LV00005B/148/A



Kessinger Publishing's® Legacy Reprints

Thousands of Scarce and Hard-to-Find Books

- Americana
- Ancient Mysteries
- Animals
- Anthropology
- Architecture
- Arts
- Astrology
- Bibliographies
- Biographies & Memoirs
- Body, Mind & Spirit
- Business & Investing
- Children & Young Adult
- Collectibles
- Comparative Religions
- Crafts & Hobbies
- Earth Sciences
- Education
- Ephemera
- Fiction
- Folklore
- Geography
- Health & Diet
- History
- Hobbies & Leisure
- Humor
- Illustrated Books
- Language & Culture
- Law
- Life Sciences
- Literature
- Medicine & Pharmacy
- Metaphysical
- Music
- Mystery & Crime
- Mythology
- Natural History
- Outdoor & Nature
- Philosophy
- Poetry
- Political Science
- Psychiatry & Psychology
- Rare Books
- Reference
- Religion & Spiritualism
- Rhetoric
- Sacred Books
- Science Fiction
- Science & Technology
- Self-Help
- Social Sciences
- Symbolism
- Theatre & Drama
- Theology
- Travel & Explorations
- War & Military
- Women
- Yoga

Download a free catalog and search our titles at: www.kessinger.net



ISBN 1104019558



9 781104 019556